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UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION
BULLETIN, 1912, NO. 27 WHOLE NUMBER 500

HISTORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ARKANSAS

By STEPHEN B. WEEKS
OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1912

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(Continued on p. 3 of cover.)

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CONTENTS.

Page.
Letter of transmittal 5
Chapter I.—The Americanization of Arkansas 7
Sale of Louisiana and organization of Arkansas 7
Growth of Arkansas population, 1820–1910 8
Sources of this English-speaking population and its feeling toward education 9
Chapter II.—Private schools prior to the Civil War 11
Indian schools 11
Private schools and academies 12
Batesville Academy 15
General character of the charters, 1836–1861 16
Schools chartered, 1838–1861 17
Tendencies seen in these charters 21
Chapter III.—The public-school system and the State land funds, 1827–1861 24
The seminary and saline funds 25
Message of Gov. Conway in 1837 26
Laws of December 17, 1838, and December 28, 1840 26
Address of Gov. Yell on industrial training 27
Law of December 23, 1846, and fortunes of the seminary fund 27
Law of 1849 transfers the seminary lands to the public schools 28
The sixteenth section fund 29
Origin of this fund 29
Constitution of 1836 30
The act of 1843 31
State textbooks, 1843 34
The law of 1849 36
The law of 1851 36
The law of 1853 38
A State school commissioner appointed 38
Working of the school law of 1853 40
Reports on public schools, 1854–1861 41
Chapter IV.—The Murphy administration, 1864–1868 47
The Federal conquest of Arkansas 47
The constitution of 1864 47
Isaac Murphy chosen governor 47
His message to the Union assembly of 1864 48
Assembly of 1866–67 levies a State tax 48
Earle made State superintendent 49
Chapter V.—The reconstruction régime, 1868–1874 51
The constitution of 1868 51
The school law of July 23, 1868 53
Thomas Smith becomes superintendent and organizes the schools 54
J. C. Corbin becomes superintendent 56
Political turmoil and reasons for failure of the school system 56

542773

Page.
Chapter VI.—The restoration of home rule, 1874–1894 59
The constitution of 1874 59
The interregnum, 1874–75 60
The law of December 7, 1875 60
The administration of Geo. W. Hill, 1875–1878 62
The administrations of James L. Denton and Dunbar H. Pope, 1878–1882. 67
The administration of Woodville E. Thompson, 1882–1890 69
The administration of Josiah H. Shinn, 1890–1894 70
Chapter VII.—The present era, 1894–1912 74
The administrations of Junius Jordan and J. W. Kuykendall, 1894–1898. 74
The administration of J. J. Doyne, 1898–1902 75
The administration of J. H. Hinemon, 1902–1906, and J. J. Doyne, 1906–1908 76
The administration of George B. Cook, 1908 to date 80
Public high schools 83
Chapter VIII.—The organization of city school systems 88
The act of February 4, 1869 88
Little Rock 89
Fort Smith 91
Hot Springs 92
Other systems 92
Chapter IX.—The origin and history of the permanent school fund 93
The sixteenth section fund 93
The seminary fund 97
The saline fund 101
The permanent school fund 103
State scrip burned 107
Chapter X—Miscellaneous matters 109
I. Auxiliary educational agencies 109
The Arkansas Teachers' Association 109
The educational press of Arkansas 109
School improvement associations 111
Teachers' reading circle 112
Southern education board 112
The education commission 112
The State board of education 113
Arkansas library association 114
II. The negro schools 115
III. Review and aspirations 118
Public-school statistics, 1868–1912 122
I. School population, teachers, property, and school year 122
II. Enrollment and attendance 123
III. School revenues 124
IV. School expenditures 125
V. Assessed valuation of property 126
VI. Apportionment of common-school fund, 1912 126
Bibliography of public-school education in Arkansas 127
Index 129

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

Department of the Interior,
Bureau of Education,
Washington, D. C., July 26, 1912.

Sir: In most States of the Union campaigns more or less systematic have been conducted within the last few years for the improvement and more adequate support of the public schools. The campaigns in the Southern States have been remarkable for their intensity and continuity, as well as for the comprehensiveness of their purpose and the importance of their results. In these campaigns the appeal must always be to the people and to their representatives in legislatures and county and city tax-levying bodies. Both the people and their representatives must be convinced that the legislation asked for will be for the public good, and that the objects for which appropriations are to be made and taxes levied and collected are worthy. Above all must it be shown that they are in keeping with the spirit of the best development in the State and community, and such as would meet the approval of those statesmen and other public men who have determined the policy of the State, and to whom the people are accustomed to look for guidance in civic matters. I have been more or less directly connected with these campaigns in several States and have frequently felt the need of some brief, clear, and comprehensive account of the origin and growth of the public-school systems of those States and of definite knowledge of the attitude of the leaders and representatives of the people toward the questions of public education. Many others have felt the same need. But the history of public education in these States has never been written in this way. I have therefore arranged for a series of studies in the history of public education in several States, to be published by the Bureau of Education for distribution in the States to which they refer. The first use of these publications will be as handbooks in these campaigns. I believe they will also have much value for students of education when the time comes—as it must soon come—for writing the history of education in this country in a more formal and comprehensive way.

The accompanying manuscript relating to education in the State of Arkansas is the first of this series. I recommend that it be published as a bulletin of this bureau.

Very respectfully,
P. P. Claxton,
Commissioner.

The Secretary of the Interior.

HISTORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ARKANSAS.

CHAPTER I.

THE AMERICANIZATION OF ARKANSAS.

The territory now embraced within the State of Arkansas was discovered and explored by the Spaniards under De Soto, and was settled by the French under La Salle and De Tonti. It formed a part of French Louisiana and came to the United States with the transfer of December 20, 1803. Under the act of Congress of March 26, 1804, the present State of Arkansas was made a part of the District of Louisiana, which was usually and popularly styled Upper Louisiana. Under the congressional act of March 3, 1805, the District of Louisiana was erected into the Territory of Louisiana, the country now included in the State of Arkansas being embraced, along with the southern part of Missouri, in the District of New Madrid. On June 27, 1806, the District of Arkansas was erected under authority of an act of the Legislature of the Territory of Louisiana. At that time practically the only settlements within the bounds of Arkansas were those at Arkansas Post and Camp Esperance, but by 1819 the population had so increased that the Federal Government found it desirable to organize the District of Arkansas as a Territory (Mar. 2, 1819). The bounds of the new Territory were 33° on the south, 36° 30′ on the north, and the Mississippi River on the east. On the west it extended indefinitely to the Mexican possessions, a distance of at least 550 miles. The Post of Arkansas was fixed as the seat of administration, while the population, nearly 14,000 in number, was located mainly on the tributaries of the White and St. Francis Rivers, on the Mississippi River between New Madrid and Point Chicot, and up both sides of the Arkansas for 100 miles above Arkansas Post.

It is relevant to trace very briefly the growth of population in the new Territory and to find as far as possible the sources from which the early population came. If these sources can be discovered, beyond question a most valuable key to the sentiments of the people

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NOTE.—The author of this study desires to express his thanks to Messrs. Josiah H. Shinn, George B. Cook, B. W. Torreyson, John H. Reynolds, and D. Y. Thomas, all of Arkansas, who read this paper while in manuscript and made valued suggestions.

toward the general subject of education will have been obtained. The population of Arkansas since 1722, the per cent of increase by decades, and the population per square mile are given in the following table:

Statistical view of Arkansas population, 1722–1910.

Year.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Per cent of increase since last census.	Population per square mile.
1722	[1] 22				
1766	88				
1785	176				
1799	368				
1810	1,062				
1820	[2] 12,579	1,676	14,255		
1830	25,671	4,717	30,388	113.1	0.3
1835	58,134	9,630	67,764	123.0	.6
1840	77,174	20,400	97,574	[3] 221.1	1.8
1850	162,189	47,708	209,897	115.1	4.0
1860	324,143	111,259	435,402	107.5	8.2
1870	362,115	122,169	484,284	11.3	9.1
1880	591,531	210,666	802,197	65.6	15.1
1890	818,752	309,117	1,127,869	40.6	21.5
1900	944,580	[4] 366,856	1,311,436	16.3	25.0
1910	1,131,020	[4] 442,891	1,573,921	20.0	30.0

[1] On Law's grant.
[2] Population statistics from United States census, except 1835, which is from State census of 1834–35.
[3] Represents per cent of increase between 1830 and 1840.
[4] Omits a few Chinese, Japanese, and Indians.

The State lies between 33° and 36° 30′ latitude—lines embraced in general on the Atlantic coast by the territory between Charleston, S. C., and the southern boundary of Virginia. As is well known, the American pioneer has, as a rule, emigrated along lines of latitude. The Mississippi River was the route by which the earliest settlers came into Arkansas, either from New Orleans or down the river from St. Louis and the settlements farther north and east. Many came by boat from southern Indiana and Ohio and from river points in Kentucky and Tennessee, but with the development of the older States of the Middle West and the building of the great National Road the methods of immigration changed. The horse became the motive power and the covered wagon superseded the flatboat; so that a large majority of the immigrants who entered Arkansas between 1815 and 1830 came overland on horseback or in wagons, entering the Territory from Missouri at Davidsonville in old Lawrence County. In 1820 their line had extended through Batesville to Cadron in Pulaski County, and in 1821 down to Red River through Clark and Hempstead Counties. "Far-away Hempstead," says Shinn, then "had more than one-seventh of the population, and although for the most part from Georgia, North Carolina, Virginia, and Kentucky, they came in from Missouri in wagons guided by the National Road." [1]

Prof. Shinn is also authority for the further statement that the English-speaking population who entered Arkansas before 1820 was largely cosmopolitan in character; that for the decades between 1820 and 1840 immigrants from Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana were dominant, with the Kentuckians in the lead.

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[1] See Shinn's Pioneers and Makers of Arkansas, 102 et seq.

The main sources of this population are given by States in the census reports for 1850–1900, and are as follows:

Statistical view of the sources of Arkansas population, 1850–1900.

Natives of—	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Tennessee	33,807	66,609	66,561	87,593	95,941	84,644
Alabama	11,250	24,433	28,317	39,013	43,265	39,988
Mississippi	4,463	16,351	22,086	35,248	51,510	54,986
Missouri	5.328	8,638	16,838	29,508	38,011	45,319
Georgia	6,367	18,031	25,232	36,715	37,726	32,902
North Carolina	8,772	17,747	18,480	19,727	24,641	20,037
Kentucky	7,428	11,083	13,609	18,089	22,703	20.641
South Carolina	4,587	10.704	13,806	15,107	21,125	17,230
Illinois	3,276	3,899	5,877	12,238	20,540	23,205
Virginia	4,737	6,484	11,851	13,272	11,950	8,745
Texas	336	1,565	6,617	10,960	14,622	19,496
Louisiana	1,096	2,313	4,909	9,649	12,416	19,844
Indiana	2,128	2,504	2,954	8,528	13.615	13,982
Ohio	1,051	1,513	2,199	5,254	9,254	8,867

Tennessee during the whole period between 1850 and 1900 stands at the head of the list of States contributing to Arkansas population; Alabama stands second in 1850, 1860, 1870, and 1880, and third in 1890 and 1900; North Carolina is third in 1850, fourth in 1860 and 1870, and sixth in 1880 and 1890; Georgia is fifth in 1850, 1880, and 1900, third in 1860, 1870, and 1880; Missouri is sixth in 1850 and 1870, fifth in 1880, fourth in 1890, and third in 1900; Mississippi is ninth in 1850, fifth in 1860, fourth in 1870 and 1880, and second in 1890 and 1900.

From this we may conclude that in order of importance the sources of population for Arkansas have been Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Missouri, Georgia, North Carolina, and we may safely assume that many of those who were born in the younger States named above were themselves the children of parents who had removed from North Carolina and Georgia.

These conclusions as to the sources of this population show its essential homogeneity and its feeling toward the subject of education in general, for it furnishes us a speculative key with which we may find entrance to the characteristic feelings of the settlers. It was but natural for them to carry to their new homes the ideals, educational and other, which they had imbibed in their old homes, and if we know the sections from which they migrated to Arkansas we can not be far wrong in the interpretation we may put on their early efforts for educational development.

These figures also justify the earlier statement that the lines of migration westward have been in the main along those of latitude. A glance at the maps in the Census Report of 1880, illustrating this phase of migration, will establish the accuracy of this statement beyond question.

Going beyond State lines, we can see from a study of the sources of Arkansas population that it was distinctively southern. Of the 10 States contributing most, 9 were southern at each census period. The only western State that comes within the ranks of the first 10 at any time is Illinois in 1850, 1860, and 1890.

It is safe to assume, then, that the conditions confronting education in the new Territory and the sentiments and training brought to the solution of its problems by the settlers were not essentially different from those which prevailed in the first half of the nineteenth century in the older States of Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Missouri, Georgia, North Carolina, and Virginia.

It will be noted that these were all slave States, and that their education was of the private and academic type which obtained in England; was transplanted to the United States and transferred to the South, especially to North Carolina, in the second half of the eighteenth century by that brilliant array of educational missionaries sent out by the College of New Jersey.

CHAPTER II.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS PRIOR TO THE CIVIL WAR.

INDIAN SCHOOLS.

The first schools in Arkansas were church schools under the direction of the Jesuits, who, during the French and Spanish régimes, made some effort at instruction of the Indians in things temporal as well as spiritual.

In the same way one of the earliest educational efforts after the beginning of the American domination was made in behalf of the Arkansas Cherokees by Rev. Cephas Washburn, a Congregational minister from New England, who, on January 1, 1822, opened a school for Cherokee Indians at old Dwight, near Russellville in Pope County. This school was an outgrowth of the school which had been established at Brainerd in the Cherokee Nation, on the east of the Mississippi. Mr. Washburn had come out under the auspices of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, and as such had visited the Cherokees in Georgia in 1818. He first visited those of Arkansas in 1819; he removed into the Territory, encountering on his trip untold hardships, in 1820–21, and because "the solicitation of the Cherokees was so urgent" made arrangements for a boarding school in the summer of 1821. This was opened January 1, 1822, with 15 pupils, a number which was soon increased to 50. From that time until 1840 Mr. Washburn continued to preach and to teach among the Cherokees. The first part of his work was conducted at Dwight, where many white pupils were also taught along with the Indians, and after the removal of the Cherokees to the Territory it was continued at the mission established on the Sallisaw, a tributary of the Arkansas. Here there were two boarding schools, one for boys and one for girls, to which some 75 pupils were attached.

The school at Dwight was something more than an institution for instruction in the three R's. The principles of modern industrial training were introduced. Once when a hostile chief sent a challenge for 20 of the school boys to meet 20 who were unschooled, for a display of skill in the green-corn dance, the challenge was accepted, but the teacher proposed to change the weapons from nimbleness of limb to skill in use of the hoe and the spelling book. The boys were taught the elements of agriculture, the girls needlework and domestic science, and all were instructed in habits of industry, neatness, and order. In this school as many as seven teachers were employed. The school in the Indian Territory was almost self-supporting, "for bread and meat were raised on the school farm and the other school expenses did not exceed $1,000."

Washburn left the Cherokee work in 1840. By his sound judgment, tireless perseverance, and his practical wisdom, he had brought the nation far on the road toward education and Christian civilization, and now felt it his duty to minister in like manner to the whites. The next 20 years were devoted to mission work and to teaching in Arkansas, often on the frontiers and frequently under trying difficulties. In modesty, unaffected humility, and thorough devotion to duty no finer example of heroism can be offered by the State than Cephas Washburn, missionary and teacher for more than 40 years (1818–1860).[1]

PRIVATE SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES.

The earliest settlers in Arkansas were by no means without educational facilities. School-teachers began their work almost with the first American settlements. Records of these schools are meager, but enough memorials have been left to show their existence. They were usually called "academies," but as a matter of fact they were primary and secondary schools combined, and perhaps in a majority of cases were more primary than secondary. It was from such schools as these that the primary schools of a later date, the real academies and other higher institutions, were evolved.

Caleb Lindsey began work as a teacher in old Lawrence County in 1816; John Calloway taught in Clark County; Moses Eastburn began teaching in 1821 and continued for 60 years. Judge Daniel Witter taught in Hempstead County in 1822. In 1825 Jesse Brown founded the Little Rock Academy. In his advertisement in the Arkansas Gazette for March 7, 1826, he says: "Jesse Brown, principal of the Little Rock Academy, returns thanks for patronage during the past year and solicits its continuance." His terms for spelling, reading, writing, and arithmetic were $24 per annum. These branches, with geography, grammar, elocution, history, chronology, bookkeeping, and "Italian method," were taught for $36. Subscriptions less than a year were $1 per month extra. French was also offered. C. W. Graham was Brown's assistant.

Brown's school was doubtless responsible for the book advertisement which appeared on November 8, 1826, in which there is offered a "new supply of school books," including Cumming's Geography and Atlas, Pickett's Juvenile Expositor, Murray's Grammar, his

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[1] See Washburn's reminiscences of the Indians in his Biography by J. W. Moore, Richmond, 1869.

Exercise and Introduction, Webster's Spelling Book, Walker's School Dictionary, pocket Bibles, slates, pencils, ink, letter paper, etc.

At the same time (Nov. 14, 1826) William E. Woodruff, editor of the Gazette, advertises a circulating library of about 150 volumes, consisting mostly of "plays and novels, with a few miscellaneous works of merit," which he proposed loaning "at the ordinary library prices." If this experiment succeeded he promised to open "a circulating library," which would include all the popular works and some periodicals. Prices were 12½ cents per week for duodecimos and octavos; the borrower was expected "to use them carefully" and to retain them "no longer than may be necessary to read them through." But this literary venture was presumably premature, for the advertisement had disappeared on December 12, and even Mr. Brown found it necessary the next January to inform his patrons who were in arrears "for schooling, or otherwise, that he can not live upon the wind."

In the Arkansas Advocate for 1830 H. M. Wiener advertises his school, which was located on the main road from Little Rock to Batesville. The terms were $12 per year or $1.25 per month. On July 4 of that year an "Address on education" had been delivered by a "native youth" before an audience in Pope County.

Thomas B. Malone, who had been teaching for 21 years, offers instruction in 1831 for both sexes: In the male department, spelling, reading, writing, and arithmetic, English grammar, rhetoric, elocution, geometry, natural and moral philosophy, and theoretic chemistry, Latin and Greek; in the female department, under direction of Mrs. Malone, reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, history, natural philosophy, drawing, and painting.

Various school advertisements appear in the Times, of Little Rock, in 1835 and 1836. In July, 1835, Mr. and Mrs. Mecklin announce that their school is to be removed to Washington County. In February, 1836, A. M. Scott announced a school as opened in the Baptist Church in Little Rock. He offered the sciences, an English education, and the Latin tongue. In May of the same year Spring Hill Female Academy advertises the arrival of Miss Elizabeth Pratt, of New York.

But perhaps the most ambitious of these announcements is that of the Little Rock Academy, "a primary and academical school." In 1836 P. Wright was conducting this school in the old State House, where he was ready to teach spelling, reading, etc., up to chemistry, botany, astronomy, trigonometry, and mental philosophy, together with Latin, Greek, and French. Mr. Wright is careful to say that his school was a place where—

> the plan of instruction will be such as to impart a thoroughly practical knowledge of the studies introduced; to promote habits of thought, reflection, and proper self-

dependence; and instead of making the mind of the pupil a lumber room, stored, without order or harmony, with a mere smattering of all subjects, to improve its powers.

These advertisements do not cover all the private schools, but they show that there were schools in the Territory for years before any applied to the Government for incorporation. Leaving out of consideration for the present the public schools, we find that from this time to the outbreak of the Civil War there was a long line of private schools which supplied, so far as they were able, the scholastic needs of the communities in which they were located. These were private or "entered" schools and charged tuition fees. Although approved and encouraged by the State, they had at first no official connection with it; they sought to cater to the wants and needs of that class of the population who could afford to send their children to school and pay for it. The number of these schools increased so largely that the Times, of Little Rock, was led to seek their raison d'être. It says editorially, on May 16, 1835:

> Disguise it as we may, the education of the rising generation is at the very bottom of the wheel * * * a state of indifference to the vital interest. * * * What has been the great moving spring in building the many institutions * * * has been sectarian pride and prejudice.[1]

Such schools and academies as the above were no doubt the more pretentious. There was, however, another class which were more local in their appeal, more modest in their claims, and of which less is known, but which were, nevertheless, the centers of educational life and inspiration for large numbers of the native population of the first generation. They were popularly known as "forest schools" —so called, perhaps, from their usual location on the borders of the unbroken wilderness—but which in some of the older States were called "old field schools."

Prof. Shinn quotes from Frederick Gerstaecker, a German traveler, a description of one of these forest schools which in 1841 was conducted between Perryville and Danville:

> We passed a school as we went along—one of the usual log houses, but with a plank inserted between two of the logs to serve for a desk. The more distant scholars come on horseback and tie their horses to the fence during school hours. Of course they bring their dinners with them. These forest schools seldom pretend to teach more than reading, writing, and arithmetic; if they attempt geography, it is confined to that of the United States. It was just noon as we passed; at this hour master and scholars make it a rule to play at ball, so that they may return with greater zeal to their spelling.

Prof. Shinn gives also a specimen contract for a "forest school."

> This article, entered into on this the 27th day of December, 1847, between Josiah C. Shinn, of the county of Pope and State of Arkansas, of the first part, and we the undersigners, of the county and State aforesaid, witnesseth: The said Shinn doth

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[1] Says Prof. Shinn: "The hundreds of old field and forest schools were not the church academies, and the fewest number of academies were church schools."

bind himself to teach a school in the new schoolhouse on the land of B. D. R. Shinn for the term of three months, Saturdays and Sundays excepted, and during said term to instruct all pupils committed to his charge in all branches usually taught in common English schools to the best of his ability. Strict rules of morality are to be enforced during school hours and while the pupils are under the care of the teacher. And we the undersigners do bind ourselves to pay said Shinn for his services $3 for each scholar we subscribe, and what the said Shinn needs for his family we will deliver at his residence, or at the house of B. D. R. Shinn. When produce is taken, it is to be at the price for which a like article can be procured for the cash. Many articles will be needed during the school for the use of the family, such as meal, flour, pork, beef, sugar, and coffee. School to begin on the 3d day of January, 1848.

In the meantime, as the population grew and the schools developed, the more advanced and better organized ones were duly incorporated according to law, and had among their trustees some of the ablest men in the State, including the best lawyers and preachers.

The first incorporated institution of learning in the State was the Batesville Academy, at Batesville, in Independence County. It was chartered under date of September 26, 1836. The provisions in this charter of general interest are:

1. The establishment, "as soon as the funds will admit," of an institution for the education of females.

2. The trustees were required "to cause the children of poor people in said county to be instructed gratis."

3. They were directed also "to educate all the students gratis * * * in all or any of the branches of education which they may require, whenever the funds of the institution shall in the opinion of the trustees permit these or either of these arrangements."

4. The law took opportunity also to emphasize freedom of religious belief, for "no preference shall be given, nor any discrimination made, in the choice of trustees, professors, teachers, or students on account of religious sentiment"; nor might the school authorities "at any time make by-laws, ordinances, or regulations that may in any wise interfere with or in any manner control the right of conscience or the free expression or exercise of religious worship."

This act marks clearly four characteristics of education in Arkansas at that time:

1. The sexes were educated separately.

2. The schools were not "free" in our sense, inasmuch as the poor were to be educated free, not for the protection of the State, but as a favor.

3. The ideal was that of a school rendered free by endowment, not by public taxes.

4. There was freedom of religious belief.

It can not be said that in any one of these four characteristics did the charter of Batesville Academy go beyond the prevailing theories of its day. It was merely the exponent of contemporary tendencies.

Its leaders were not the prophets of coming educational freedom and showed no signs of educational leadership.

The Fayetteville Female Academy was the second institution incorporated, receiving its charter on October 26, 1836. As its name indicates, this institution was for women. It was incorporated before the town of Fayetteville had a legal existence and helped to create an atmosphere which before the war made Fayetteville an educational center.

From 1836 to 1861 the fashion for private academies was so accentuated that a number were chartered at nearly every recurring session of the legislature. The acts of incorporation are of the same type and reproduce in general the characteristics already noted under the Batesville Academy:

A self-perpetuating board, made up of the more prominent citizens of the county, section, or State, as the case might be, was created; this board had all the powers of an educational nature of a body corporate; it controlled absolutely all funds the institution might acquire; it elected and dismissed its teachers; it was usually charged to provide a similar institution for girls as soon as funds would permit; to educate the poor without charge, not as a right but as a favor; to make all tuition free when the proceeds from private endowments would allow; and to make no discrimination on account of religious beliefs.

This was the general character of the charters given in the thirties and forties; in the fifties they had broadened somewhat, perhaps owing to the knowledge that comes from experience. It then became general to charter the institutions for some definite length of time, usually 99 years; the provisions in regard to religion were left out, being perhaps by that time thoroughly fixed in State consciousness; their powers were broadened, a number, both male and female, being empowered to grant degrees, even "the degree of Doctor in the learned arts and sciences and belles letters"; they were specifically exempted from taxation, and it was provided that no mere misnomer should prevent an institution from receiving gifts that had been really intended for it; a limit was put on the amount of endowment they might hold, the maximum being about $250,000, besides buildings, library, and apparatus; the acts of incorporation were declared to be public acts. Generally it was declared that all property should be held and administered for educational purposes, not as a source of private gain, although in a very few cases private joint-stock companies were created. In many cases the institutions were protected from the sale of liquors in their vicinity, and this protection was even extended to institutions that were not formally incorporated.

In the following pages is given a list of the institutions chartered before 1861 with remarks on any noteworthy characteristics.

Chartered in 1838:
- Lewisburg Academy, Lewisburg.
- Little Rock Academy, Pulaski County.
- Chicot Academy.
- Napoleon Public School.

The name of the last-mentioned institution is suggestive of modern life. It is recited in the act that the building for its occupancy had been already erected and it has been said that it was "doubtless the first public school building in the State." The charter excluded from the school the promulgators of abolition and Mormonism, but beyond this prohibition there is nothing to differentiate this academy from others. It was not a public school in any modern sense, either in operation or theory. It was a private institution of the orthodox type. The charter was amended at the legislative session of 1842–43. Chicot Academy, however, looks toward the modern idea and comes near being a public school, since the trustees were authorized to sell (i. e , lease for 99 years, renewable forever) the sixteenth sections, and whenever the interest on the money received should amount to $2,000 to apply it to educational purposes. A further indication of a modern trend is the demand that English be required as a study. This seems to have been the first academy in the State to grasp the public-school idea.

Chartered in 1840:
- Rocky Comfort Academy, Sevier County, then already in operation.
- Pocahontas Academy, Pocahontas.

Chartered in 1842–43:
- Bethesda Academy, Washington County.
- Lafayette Academy, Lewisville.
- Benton Academy, Saline County.

The last-named institution was authorized to establish a department of agriculture, but since no children were to be required to study or labor in that department contrary to the wishes of parents and guardians, we may safely assume that it was of the manual-labor type prominent at that day—probably an echo of Fellenberg's system.

Chartered in 1844–45:
- Far West Seminary, Washington County.
- Spring Hill Male Academy, Hempstead County.
- Spring Hill Female Academy, Hempstead County.
- Fort Smith Academy, Crawford (now Sebastian) County.

The Fort Smith school had been in existence since 1840 or earlier; its term was 11 months.

The two Spring Hill schools although separate and distinct had the same incorporators, and the acts of incorporation are identical. The institutions were educational twins, as it were.

Rev. Cephas Washburn, of Cherokee fame, was one of the incorporators of Far West Seminary. Its buildings were already erected and work was in progress. It was to have a manual-labor system, to lessen expense and promote health. A bid on its part for general patronage is indicated by choosing one of the trustees from the Cherokee Nation, another from Missouri, and a third from the southwestern corner of the State. The Bible was declared the standard in religion and morals, and the institution was made nonsectarian and nonpartisan. It had received in 1843 lands from private individuals as a part of its endowment. The most important phase of its constitution was expressed in the following section in its charter, which would seem to indicate that the trustees of Far West had begun to realize that something more than a mere acquiring was necessary in education:

> 5th. In addition to the ordinary degrees of academical attainments, an honorary premium shall be conferred on such students as, in addition to the ordinary branches, shall have attended scientifically to agriculture and the mechanic arts, and shall have acquired a practical skill in agriculture or some one branch of mechanics.

It is very unfortunate that no history of this interesting experiment has come down to us.

Chartered in 1846:
- Washington Male and Female Seminary, of Hempstead County, a Methodist school.

Chartered in 1848:
- Clarksville Institute, Clarksville, Johnson County.
- Princeton Male and Female Academy.
- College of St. Andrew, at Fort Smith.

Clarksville Institute was intended for the education of the blind. The act of incorporation contains a provision by which the institute might become personal property. In January, 1851, the legislature placed the deaf and dumb under its control, appropriated $1,000 for its support, and required an annual report.

The College of St. Andrew was a Roman Catholic institution. Its proposed charter precipitated a fight in the legislature, the majority of the committee reporting against its incorporation on the ground that it was a sectarian institution dominated by a bishop who owned no allegiance to American institutions, and on the additional ground that it asked for a charter in perpetuity. The proposed charter was amended and then became a law. Owing to fire the college never materialized, but a church school was conducted here until 1858.

Chartered in 1850–51:

Tulip Female Collegiate Assembly, Dallas County.
Arkansas Military Institute, Tulip, Dallas County.
Cane Hill Collegiate Institute, Booneboro, Washington County.
Soulesbury College, Batesville.
Eldorado Female Academy, Union County.
Fountain Hill Male and Female Academy, Ashley County.

Cane Hill was under the control of the Presbyterians. By an act of 1852–53 its name was changed to Cane Hill College and it was given power to confer degrees. Soulesbury College was under the control of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South. Its name was changed in 1852 from college to institute. The two institutions at Tulip were complementary and covered the whole field, while keeping the two sexes apart.

Chartered in 1852–53:

Oil Trough Academy, Independence County.
Cane Hill Female Seminary, Booneboro, Washington County. It was first chartered in 1850.
Mine Creek Male and Female College, Hempstead County.
Boston Male and Female Academy, Franklin County.
Mackemic College.
Batesville Institute.
Lacy Male and Female Academy, Lacy, Drew County.
Male Academy, Monticello, Drew County.
Female Academy, Monticello, Drew County.
Arkansas College, Fayetteville, Washington County.

Oil Trough and Mine Hill were coeducational. Mackemic College was a Presbyterian institution. Although the name appears in the charter as Makemic it was probably named for Francis Makemie. Arkansas College had power "to constitute and confer the degree of doctor in the learned arts and sciences and 'belles-lettres,' and to confer such other academical degrees as are usually conferred by the most learned universities." Batesville Institute was "an institution for the promotion of the fine arts, mechanism, science, education, commerce, and agriculture, and the diffusion of knowledge." This was to be accomplished by establishing a college, a circulating library, etc. It seems to have been a private joint-stock company.

Chartered in 1854–55:

Perkins Institute, Smithville, Lawrence County. Its charter was revived in 1861.
Crawford Institute, Van Buren.
Batesville Male and Female Academy.
Huntsville Masonic Institute, Huntsville.
Princeton Male Academy, Dallas County.
Princeton Female Academy, Dallas County.

Pleasant View Female Academy, Huntsville, Madison County.
Clarksville Female Seminary, Clarksville, Johnson County.
Bluff Spring Male and Female Academy, Marion County.

The two Princeton academies were entirely distinct bodies with entirely different boards. The Clarksville and Huntsville schools might confer degrees. Crawford Institute belonged to the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and might confer "the degree of doctor in the learned arts and sciences, and belles-lettres." Its name was changed to Wallace Institute in 1857.

Chartered in 1856–57:

Spring Hill Academy.
Ouachita Conference Female College, Camden.
Dardanelle Female Institute, successor to Dardanelle Female Seminary.
Mount Holly Academy, Union County.
Chicot Male and Female Academy, Chicot County.

Ouachita College, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, had power to confer "degrees in the arts and sciences." It was transferred to Tulip, Dallas County, in 1860.

Chartered in 1858–59:

St. Charles Academy, Arkansas County.
Searcy Polytechnic School, White County.
Warren Male and Female Seminary, Bradley County.
Hampton Male and Female Academies, Calhoun County (consolidated in 1860).
Magnolia Female Institute (charter repealed 1861).
Fayetteville Female Institute, Washington County.
Fayetteville Female Seminary, Washington County.
Atlanta Male and Female Academy, Union County.
Van Buren Female Institute, Van Buren.
Ewing Institute, Johnson County.
Jefferson Female College, Pine Bluff.
Dardanelle Female Institute, Yell County.
Female Academy of St. Catherine, Helena.
Chambersville Male and Female Academy, Calhoun County.
Crooked Creek Male Academy, Marion County.
Arkansas Institute for the Blind.
Mountain House Male and Female Academy, Marion County.
Phi Kappa Sigma (ΦΚΣ) Male College, Monticello, Drew County.
White Sulphur Spring Female High School, Jefferson County.

The Academy of St. Catherine was a Catholic institution. The act of incorporation of Fayetteville Female Seminary recites that it had been founded in 1839. Warren Seminary was a joint-stock company, conducted for gain. In 1861 the Arkansas Institute for the Blind was given State funds per year up to $4,000. The name of the Searcy Polytechnic Institute arouses the hope that a new master had arisen in this educational Israel, but it proves to be an academy of the orthodox type. The only new feature is that of military instruction.

Chartered in 1860–61:

Franklin Male Institute, Ozark, Franklin County.
Arkansas Synodical College, Arkadelphia.
Ouachita Conference Female College, Tulip.
Pocahontas, Randolph County, and Gainesville, Greene County, Male and Female Colleges.
Sisters of Mercy of the Female Academies of Helena, of Little Rock, and of Fort Smith (3 separate schools).
Maryville Male and Female Academy, Columbia County.
Brownsville Male Academy.
Arkadelphia Female College, Methodist, Sevier County.
Richmond Male and Female Academy, Sevier County.
Poinsett Male and Female Academy, Poinsett County.
Spring Hill Male and Female Seminary, Hempstead County.
Hickory Plain Male and Female Institute.
Pleasant Ridge Academy, Bradley County.
Northwestern Arkansas Baptist Female Institute, Fayetteville, Washington County.
Hillsboro Male and Female Academy, Union County.
Benton Male and Female College.
Three Creeks Female Institute, Union County (mentioned as if already established).

Pocahontas and Gainesville Colleges, although entirely separate and distinct and with separate boards, were created by the same act.

In 1861, St. John's College, of Little Rock, received the geological and mineralogical specimens and the miscellaneous books which had been on deposit in the office of the secretary of state. Various other institutions are also named in the law as receiving some particular mark of favor from the State, such as remission of taxes or protection against liquor selling, although they had received no formal charter. It is therefore certain that not all the educational institutions received charters from the State.

TENDENCIES OF THE CHARTERS.

Four tendencies may be discovered in a study of these charters:

1. The schools were clustered about particular centers rather than distributed over the State as a whole; e. g., Batesville, 1836, 1853, 1854; Cane Hill, 1850, 1852; Princeton, 1849, two in 1855; Chicot, 1838, 1857; Fayetteville, 1836, 1858, 1859 (all female seminaries).

2. Male academies are soon followed by female academies in the same town; later the tendency to unite the two into one appears.

3. There is a tendency to call these institutions colleges, instead of schools, academies, or institutes, to grant degrees, and to increase greatly the number chartered.

4. There was a growth of religious—i. e., denominational—schools.

It has not been thought necessary to carry this list beyond the beginning of the Civil War, not because no private schools were conducted after the end of the war, but for the much more important reason that that struggle marks the end of an era in educational progress in Arkansas and in the South. Before then education was academic, select, classical, and belonged to the classes. It was an advantage to be paid for as any other luxury; it was not a necessity to be demanded from the State as a right. The private academy stands for the older idea; the public school for the newer.

The early settlers in Arkansas began to put into practice the educational ideas they had imbibed in their old homes. In the beginning elementary education was left largely to the family. Arkansas, like New England, depended on the private academy, not on the public school. This academy, without supervision or outside control and a law unto itself, owed its origin to private initiative and private munificence. It served primarily those who were able to pay for its advantages; after them, but to a more limited extent, it served the community as a whole. It was the source of education, and its course extended from the rudiments to the college.

The southerner, true to his English ancestry, showed a tendency to develop the type of institution which he had received from his fathers. He did not take kindly to founding new ones. The feeling in the South, and in the Union as a whole for that matter—for it was 1820 before primary instruction was made free even in Boston—was not against schools but against free schools, which were regarded by the poor as a badge of poverty and by the wealthy as degrading. The academy supplied the needs of the planter; if more was necessary he sent his sons to the University of North Carolina, the University of Virginia, or to the North.[1] The people as a whole had not felt the coming impulse and had made no demand. When the impulse came the aristocratic founders of private academies became the leaders in the new field of educational endeavor.

Then, too, historically speaking, education was considered the daughter of religion and, like religion, was regarded as a matter of personal and domestic concern with which the State had no right to interfere. As each individual was allowed absolute liberty in matters of religion, so he was in education. Further still, the population was small, indifferent to culture, bent on the conquest of nature, with little opportunity for organization, devoted to agriculture and personal freedom, and so scattered that in 1840 it averaged 1.8 persons to the square mile and only 8 in 1860. There were no large towns to serve as centers of civic life and the large slave population complicated the problem. It is not surprising, then, that no general system of education was developed.

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[1] J. B. De Bow estimated that in 1855 the South paid the North $5,000,000 for books and education.

Considering the inherent difficulties which the academies, more or less isolated and more or less transient, had to face, we can only marvel that they produced results as satisfactory as they did. They did not furnish universal education, but they did train a body of leaders who governed and developed the State, and, as Shinn well says:

> The teachers were men of parts, and the instruction managed in some way to sift itself through the whole community. Every bright boy got his share, and that irrespective of his ability to pay.[1]

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[1] Shinn's History of Education in Arkansas, p. 21.

CHAPTER III.

THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM AND THE STATE LAND FUNDS, 1827-1861.

The history of public schools in Arkansas prior to 1861 is the history of the public lands which had been granted by the Federal Government at various times to the State for educational purposes—the history of the seminary, saline, and sixteenth-section lands.

It is also the history of a courageous people who sought by the empirical method to work out their educational salvation and who, because of the spirit of the age or section, were unable to diagnose the fatal weakness of their system. In their organic capacity the people of Arkansas slowly and laboriously worked out their problem. It was a long and painful experiment, accompanied by many mistakes, for which they as a whole had to pay a heavy penalty, and yet each experience, each costly experiment, brought them visibly nearer the goal of universal education.

These experiments in State education for all the people date from 1827, and are therefore contemporaneous, throughout their whole course, with the evolution, development, and growth of the private academies. While the leaders of Arkansas were making use of the academy to supply their immediate educational needs, they were seeking slowly and painfully to evolve a plan of universal education by means of Government grants of public land.

When we come to trace the history of the public-school movement in Arkansas, we find—

(1) That it was an evolution from private schools, usually called academies.

(2) That it drew its support (*a*) first of all from tuition fees and from endowments made by private individuals; (*b*) from direct taxation, which, however, during this period was so small that it may be neglected (being only $1,100 for the State for the year represented by the Federal Census of 1860); (*c*) from the income of the seminary and saline funds, which were soon diverted from the higher to the lower schools; (*d*) from the income of the sixteenth-section funds, which, as will be learned, was the property of the township, not of the State as a whole.

As the basis of the schools was money, it becomes necessary to trace the history of the more important of these funds. The funds coming from private sources have been considered already in connection with the chapter on the private academies; that from taxation may be neglected.

THE SEMINARY AND SALINE FUNDS.

As early as February 17, 1818, the Government of the United States had granted to the Territory of Missouri for educational purposes, two townships of land, one of which was to be located on the Arkansas. In 1827, by the act of March 2, this was changed so that the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to set aside for the use of the Territory of Arkansas two entire townships "for the support and use of a University." These lands were to be located in tracts of not less than an entire section. They became known and are referred to as "seminary lands" and are so used in this paper. They are separate and distinct from the sixteenth-section lands, which were for the use of public schools. The seminary lands, when located, represented some of "the best and most valuable lands" in the Territory. Gov. Pope, in his message to the assembly of 1829, recommended that authority be obtained from Congress to lease them on long terms, so that tenants would feel "an interest in making lasting and valuable improvements." It was thought that in this way in a few years ample revenue would be secured "for the education of the rising generation of the Territory, an object of the highest importance in every free country." Gov. Pope's reasons for this recommendation are shown when, in the same message, he adverts to the condition of many of the newly arrived immigrants, refers to the presence of the land speculator, and in a veiled manner to the promises then held out to Americans by the Mexican Government. These immigrants, he said, have—

> settled on the public lands and made small improvements to support their wives and children, and are liable every moment to be driven from their homes by the wealthy speculator, without compensation for their labor. They have not money to purchase where to lay their heads, and without the protecting hand of a wise, just, and humane government they must seek homes from the bounty of some foreign government.[1]

By an act of Congress of March 3, 1833, the governor was authorized to sell 20 sections of these lands and to apply the proceeds to buildings for the proposed university. On October 24, 1835, Congress was asked by the general assembly for complete power over the seminary lands.[2] This request was granted in the act of June 23, 1836, supplementary to the act of admission. By that act the lands for the proposed university and the saline lands were placed entirely in the hands of the general assembly, and the grant of the sixteenth section "to the State for the use of the inhabitants of such township for the use of schools" was confirmed.

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[1] It should be recalled that the present homestead law was not then in existence.

[2] By resolution of Nov. 3, 1835, the assembly asked for "entire control of the sixteenth sections or school lands." The State act of Nov. 5, 1836, provides for another selection when the sixteenth section had been taken up by private parties.

In his message to the assembly of 1837 Gov. James S. Conway says:

> One among the important duties to be performed by the present legislature will be the judicious disposal of the fund which will arise from a donation of 72 sections of land granted to the State by the General Government for the purpose of establishing a seminary of learning. Its magnitude will doubtless insure your serious consideration. The creation of institutions of learning upon a scale as liberal as our means will justify must give to our young State an early, respectable, and proud stand among her sister republics. Most of the States of the Union have adopted measures and created funds for a general system of education, and from their experience we are taught that an earlier movement in the same course would have advanced the moral and intellectual standard of their citizens; and, learning wisdom from the experience of our neighbors, we can, in the outset, take such steps as will enable all our citizens to bestow on their children the benefits of education.

Shinn remarks (p. 14) that because of his penchant for educational philosophy and history Gov. Conway saw—

> means and ends not discernible by those about him; * * * the trend of educational work went on under the guidance of individual experience rather than from any study and generalization of the past experiences of others. Forty years were devoted to gathering experiences, when the same results might have been reached by a careful historic study in a few years.

This criticism is eminently just, for the men who held the educational future of the State in their hands were without educational experience of the sort necessary for the problem; no educational leader arose in that generation, and as a result this great endowment melted away even before the shock of war had come.[1]

In response to the governor's appeal, the assembly, by act of December 17, 1838, provided for the sale of all seminary lands. The funds arising from these sales were made a part of the capital of the bank of the State of Arkansas, but were declared a privileged fund, were not liable for the payment of the debts of the bank or of its branches, and were to be credited with all of their earnings.[2] In accord with this law, on February 17 and 18, 1840, all located and unlocated seminary lands were offered for sale. The governor was made the agent of the State, a minimum price of $10 was fixed, but only four 80-acre tracts were sold, for a total of $3,212. This seems to have discouraged the governor, who recommended in his next message that the minimum price be reduced to $5 and when not sold at public auction it be disposed of at private sale. In accord with this recommendation a new act was passed on December 28, 1840, under which the price of these lands, at public or private sale, for the first six months was fixed at $6; for the next six it was fixed at $5; for the next six, $4; and after 18 months it was to be $3 per acre, "until otherwise altered by law."

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[1] In 1838 Gov. Conway "earnestly recommended that means be adopted that will insure the speedy erection of a seminary." House Jour., 161-162, sess. 1838.

[2] For the amount finally lost through the bank of the State of Arkansas, see Chapter IX.

This act was a long step backward, for not only was the time of payment extended to five annual installments, but the expression "until otherwise altered by law" invited land speculators and debtors to make demand for further concessions—an invitation which they are never slow to accept.

And yet, in his inaugural address before this same assembly in November, 1840, Gov. Archibald Yell had given utterance to an expression which indicated real educational statesmanship, which if carried out would have put Arkansas in the forefront of educational endeavor, and which marks Gov. Yell as a leader who was far ahead of his time. He said:

> As a large portion of our rising generation are designed for agricultural employments, I respectfully suggest such a system of education as would not only teach science and literature, but combining practical knowledge of the mode of farming, which will tend to inculcate principles of economy and industry. The student then, in quitting his school, is qualified for his profession and at once becomes an ornament and useful member of society.[1]

He renewed this recommendation in 1843.

But after the passage of the act of December 28, 1840, not much was to be expected from the seminary lands. In 1842 the assembly went further and gave up its rights to certain lands in favor of the squatters who were upon them. In 1844, December 18, the assembly asked Congress to allow it to apply the proceeds of the seminary lands to the common school fund. This request was granted by act of July 29, 1846.[2]

By act of December 23, 1846, the assembly made the agent of State lands also agent of the seminary lands and authorized him to dispose of them at private sale. The price was fixed for the first year at $4 per acre; for the second at $3; and thereafter at $2. The payments were to be made in five years. In the case of the seminary lands there was a system by which land titles were secured or land money obtained from the treasury. Borrowers did not work singly but in companies, and by becoming surety for each other were able to obtain a maximum of loans on a minimum of security. One company of borrowers had 3 members and gave 10 notes; a second company of 5 gave 30 notes with one of their number as principal and 2 or 3 of the others as securities. In the list of 55 notes reported October 1, 1842, there were in all exactly 21 different names, with a total principal of $29,269.53. The Big Five got off with the lion's share—30 notes for $21,805 (principal).[1]

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[1] Jour. House Rep., 1840-41, p. 274. *Ibid*, 1843, App., p. 14.

[2] And yet, on November 7, 1846, Gov. Drew writes to the assembly as if in ignorance of this congressional act. House Jour., 1848, p. 14.

In 1847 Ebenezer Cummins, one of the greatest lawyers of that day, was retained by the auditor to enforce payment for seminary lands sold to James Trigg, Richard Pryor, John W. Paup, and others. He brought suit in the Pulaski circuit court in that year, and on November 23 obtained two judgments against Trigg, Pryor, and Paup; one for $6,119.44, and the other for $10,709.10, or a total of $16,828.54. The defendants tendered in payment the paper money issued by the broken State Bank of Arkansas and made this tender a defense to the action. This was overruled by the circuit court and in turn by the supreme court of the State. This case was appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, where the following decision was reached (10 Howard, 218):

> Although the pledge of the State to receive the notes of the bank in payment of all debts due to it in its own right was a contract which it could not violate, yet where the State sold lands which were held by it in trust for the benefit of a seminary, and the terms of the sale were that the debtor should pay in specie or its equivalent, such debtor was not at liberty to tender the notes of the bank in payment.

This decision went further and said:

> The lands sold did not belong to the State of Arkansas, but were held by it in trust, to be appropriated solely for the use of the seminary. The money secured to be paid by the purchaser partook of the same character. * * * Should the money be invested by the State and lost, it would be responsible for it. No hazard incurred in the appropriation or use of this money could exonerate the State from faithfully carrying out the object for which the fund was originally constituted.

Other judgments were obtained about the same time amounting to $20,279.20, making the whole fund $48,000, the greater part of which was presumably never collected.[2]

In 1849 came the final blow to the seminary fund as such. Under an act passed in that year and in accord with the authority granted by the congressional act of 1846, the assembly provided that the principal of the seminary and saline funds should be divided among the counties for the use of common schools in proportion to their school census. The principal of these various county funds was to remain as an inviolate, permanent endowment fund. It was to be loaned by the county treasurer on good security at not less than 10 per cent, and the income was to be distributed among the school districts (i. e., townships) in proportion to school population.

In accord with this law semiannual distributions of the seminary and saline funds were made to the counties on account of the public schools. Their distribution on January 1 and July 1 are reported in the State auditor's accounts, but there is little uniformity in them. The term "apportioned" is used as synonymous with "distributed" and "drawn." So far as possible these accounts have been reconstructed from the varying reports of the auditor and treasurer and are given at length in the chapter on the permanent school fund.

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[1] See auditor's report, 1842, in App. House Jour., 1842.

[2] See Shinn's History of Education in Arkansas, p. 18.

THE SIXTEENTH SECTION FUND.

The policy of granting the sixteenth section in each township for the use of public education had its origin in the ordinance of 1787. No general law was passed by Congress concerning the granting of these lands, but it became a general principle, and on March 3, 1803, Congress extended the privileges of the ordinance of 1787 to States in the Mississippi territory and thence it passed to those west of the river. It was recognized in the enabling act of Missouri in 1820 (March 6) and passed to Arkansas with its organization as a Territory of the second grade, March 2, 1819.[1] By formal act of January 6, 1829, the Territorial authorities were authorized to make and carry into effect—

> such laws and needful regulations as they shall deem most expedient to protect from injury and waste the sixteenth section in all townships of lands in said territory * * * which sections are reserved for the support of schools in each township, and to provide by law for leasing or renting the same, for any term not exceeding five years, in such manner as to render said school lands most valuable and productive, and shall apply the rents derived therefrom to the support of common schools in the respective townships.[2]

In accord with this law of Congress, the Territorial legislature, on November 21, 1829, passed a law to regulate the use of these lands. The judge of the county court was required to appoint a trustee for the sixteenth section. His duty was to preserve the land from waste and to lease it for not more than five years; the income arising was to be appropriated "to the support of a school in said township," and in case the inhabitants were too few in the township for a separate school, on petition of two-thirds of the inhabitants of "one or more adjoining townships," the county court might consolidate their schools.

It will be noted that this act gave the sixteenth sections to the townships—not to the State—and provided that each township should have the funds arising from its own lands, and no more. Provision was made for a township school with something of county supervision, and, in its rudimentary form, for a tentative solution of the problem of all thinly settled communities—the consolidation of rural schools. This phase of the law, however, was repealed in 1831. There is no record of the workings of this first effort to organize a public-school system on the basis of the Federal land grants. It seems that substantially nothing was done, for no other mention of schools in the laws is discoverable until Arkansas had become a State. But, says Shinn:[3]

> In 1829 almost every township of the few counties that constituted the Territory had a school of some kind, some of which were private schools taught by old-field

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[1] See acts of Mar. 2, 1819, and Apr. 21, 1820.

[2] U. S. Stat. L., act of Jan. 6, 1829.

[3] Report Supt. Public Instruction, 1907-8, p. 25.

schoolmasters, well-educated men, while others were schools under the control of the county court of the county, and received the money derived from the rental of the 72 sections, which fund was supplemented by private tuition.

The addresses of governors prior to 1840, however, gave a picture much less roseate than that drawn by Prof. Shinn.

THE CONSTITUTION OF 1836.

The constitution under which Arkansas was admitted to the Union has the following provision in regard to education:

> Knowledge and learning generally diffused through a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, and diffusing the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the State being highly conducive to this end, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to provide by law for the improvement of such lands as are, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such lands, or from any other source, to the accomplishment of the object for which they are or may be intended. The general assembly shall from time to time pass such laws as shall be calculated to encourage intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement by allowing rewards and immunities for the promotion and improvement of arts, science, commerce, manufactures, and natural history, and countenance and encourage the principles of humanity, industry, and morality.

In his inaugural, delivered as first governor of the new State, James S. Conway indulges in hopeful expectations:

> Let us, therefore, examine far and collect all materials calculated to enlighten the public mind and diffuse general and useful knowledge.

Thinking of the great but undeveloped resources of the State, he adds:

> We have ample means for the establishment of such institutions of learning as will insure universal education to the youth of our country.

But it is hardly probable that the governor realized the necessity of supplementing the fund by taxation or the amount of educational statesmanship required to turn their wild lands into a fund, even in part sufficient for the education of the whole people, or that upon the efficiency of this statesmanship depended whether the schools should be supported in part out of an endowment established through the generosity of the Federal Government or whether their support should come entirely from the pockets of the people. By this time (1837) the general assembly seems to have arrived at the belief that sufficient funds could not be secured from leasing these lands to support the schools, but the idea of taxation for school support had not developed.

Gov. Conway said (1837) that the State was "almost destitute of good common schools," and the legislature of that year memorialized Congress for authority to sell in fee simple the sixteenth sections.[1]

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[1] Jour. House Rep., 1837, p. 183.

This was given by an act of February 15, 1843, which was made applicable to Illinois, Louisiana, and Tennessee, as well as to Arkansas, and by which these States were authorized to lease or sell "all or any part of the lands" granted for the use of schools. The legislature was directed to invest the money thus secured "in some productive fund" and the proceeds were alone to be used. Congress was careful to provide also that these lands should not be sold without consent of the particular townships, and that—

> in the apportionment of the proceeds of said fund each township and district shall be entitled to such part thereof, and no more, as shall have accrued from the sum or sums of money arising from the sale of the school lands belonging to such township or district.

Congress provided further:

> That if the proceeds accruing to any township or district from said fund shall be insufficient for the support of schools therein, it shall be lawful for said legislatures to invest the same in the most secure and productive manner until the whole proceeds of the fund belonging to such township or district shall be adequate to the permanent maintenance and support of schools within the same: *Provided*, That the legislatures aforesaid shall in no case invest the proceeds of the sale of the lands in any township in manner aforesaid without the consent of the inhabitants in said township or district, to be obtained as aforesaid.

THE ACT OF 1843.

In the meantime the State had again begun to consider the question of using and administering any funds that might arise from the sixteenth sections. In 1840 a law of this kind had been passed, which applied to a single township in Independence County. Then followed other acts, and on February 3, 1843, a general act was passed "to establish a system of common schools in the State of Arkansas."

As this was the first State-wide or general effort to organize the public educational forces of the State, it must be carefully examined. It should be remembered that at the time of passage of this act Congress had not consented to the sale in fee simple of the sixteenth sections.

The act provided that on request of any township where there were as many as 5 householders and 15 white children the county court should order an election for a commissioner for that township, whose duty it should be to sell, or lease if the township preferred, the sixteenth sections on 10 years' credit, at not less than $2 per acre. The funds thus accruing were to be perpetual, the income only to be used. There was to be elected also a board of three school trustees who should have supervision and control of the fund thus created; they were authorized, when the funds were sufficient, to build schoolhouses, were required to employ teachers, and to keep a school or schools open four months in the year, each taught by a competent teacher. The subjects covered were "orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good morals." The school officers were also authorized to receive donations and subscriptions to supplement the income from the sixteenth-section fund. They were directed to take an annual school census and to ascertain the amount subscribed for each pupil, the number for whom there was no subscription, because they were unable financially to subscribe, and to consolidate township schools if found desirable.

Further, each county was to elect a board of county school commissioners, composed of 3 elective members, together with the county clerk and the county judge. This board was to have charge of the funds that belonged distinctively to the county. This, rather than the township, was to pay for the tuition and books of indigent children and to aid the weaker townships in bringing their income up to that of the stronger ones, so far as county funds would allow. This county fund was made up of moneys arising from escheats, strays, saline lands, fines, and unexpended balances of the surplus revenue.

An analysis of this law will show how far it was from the modern idea. The schools were to be supported entirely from contributions and the sixteenth-section endowment. There was no suggestion of State or local taxation. Those unable to contribute were to be educated as "indigent children." The funds from the sixteenth section under the most favorable conditions were inadequate. Had the lands been sold at $2 per acre for cash the whole principal would have been but $1,280 per township, which, if invested at 10 per cent, a rate not unreasonable at the time and place, would have produced an annual income of $128, a sum barely sufficient to support one teacher for three months, leaving nothing for incidentals or for buildings. But the lands were sold on 10 years' time, and we know in many cases were never paid for. It becomes evident, then, that the public schools had in the main to depend on private subscriptions and could regard the income from the public-land fund (both seminary and sixteenth section) as, at best, but an uncertain adjunct to the contributions of interested and public-spirited citizens.

In 1844 the auditor, Elias N. Conway, later governor, said that he had sent out blanks for reports on number of pupils, disposition of the sixteenth sections, and organization of common schools. He complains that only 14 counties had reported, and that little had been done in these.

He sharply criticizes the law of 1843:

> The common-school law is so complicated, and requires the concert of action in so many officers, that * * * the system * * * can never be fully organized in a State so sparsely settled as ours. To organize every township and county in the State under this law would require about 5,800 officers, all to act and attend to duties assigned them without any compensation but the satisfaction derived from aiding in the cause of education.
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> This law * * * conflicts with the act of Congress authorizing the State to sell the sixteenth sections; and also provides for the distribution of the saline fund for the

> use of common schools in violation of the act of Congress requiring this fund to be expended for making internal improvements.
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> For the organization of a system of common schools * * * a new law should be passed, plain, comprehensive, requiring fewer officers and proper accountability in them; and that duplicates of their bonds and returns of all sales of lands and of their other proceedings should be filed in some office at the seat of government.[1]

We have here the germ of the State superintendent's office.

The law of 1843 failed to accomplish its object. The funds produced by the sale of the sixteenth sections were insufficient to meet the needs of the common schools, and by a resolution of December 18, 1844, the general assembly asked Congress for authority to sell the seminary lands and apply the proceeds to the public schools. This permission was given by Congress by an act passed July 29, 1846,[2] and by another act passed March 3, 1847, the State was authorized to sell the saline lands granted by the Federal Government and apply the proceeds for the same purpose. In this way all the lands granted for the support of schools of any class were concentrated on the public schools.

By legislative act of February 3, 1843, an executive school body, "The Board of Education for the State of Arkansas," was created. It consisted of the governor, the president of the senate, the speaker of the house, the supreme judges, and 10 members of the general assembly—all men with numerous other public and private duties to perform. There was not a professional teacher among them, nor did the profession of teaching in itself make a man eligible for membership on this board. It was to meet upon the convening of each assembly, and immediately after their own election make regulations necessary to carry out the law and report on the progress of education. No such reports have been preserved.

It does not appear that any serious attempt was made to carry out the act of 1843. Gov. Drew urged the assembly in 1844 that they—

> by reference to all previous legislation, ascertain wherein our laws are defective or inapplicable, and having done this, proceed with promptness and fidelity to provide for the most advantageous and speedy disposal of all the seminary lands, so as to raise a sufficient fund to commence the good work of establishing an institution of learning.

In 1846 he said:

> The common-school system heretofore attempted has not been carried into successful operation; nor can it be in the absence of means, none having been provided except for the purchase of books.

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[1] In 1848 Conway suggested that the saline lands be devoted to higher education.

[2] U. S. Stat. L., vol. 9, p. 42.

In 1848 he wanted a second section of land in each township donated for education, and recommended that the counties donate to the school fund all fines, forfeitures, etc. He said further:

> There are already many respectable schools and seminaries in successful operation in different sections of the State, sustained alone by individual means and individual enterprise.

There is here no mention or suggestion of taxation for schools, but this was not to be expected when the whole tax levy was only one-eighth of 1 per cent, or 12½ cents per $100, and when the running expenses were paid in part out of the surplus revenue.

STATE TEXTBOOKS, 1843.

The act of 1843 undertook to settle the ever-recurring question of textbooks. Section 31 of the law appropriated $1,000 "out of the common-school fund" for the purchase of books for the "use of common schools in this State." Section 32 authorizes the auditor to purchase the books and to distribute them to the counties in proportion to the children from 5 to 21 years old. Section 33 provides that the county commissioners distribute—

> the same amongst the common schools of their respective counties as the same may be required for the use of said schools, at an advance of 10 per cent on the cost and transportation thereof.

But this law was not executed. Says Auditor Conway, under date of October 1, 1844:

> The law requiring that these textbooks should be purchased in some eastern city, where they can be had on the best terms, the auditor applied in person and writing to the officers of the bank for $1,000 in specie or par funds, but they refused to pay anything but Arkansas bank paper, which could not be used in any of the eastern cities. Under these circumstances the money has not been drawn, nor have the books been purchased; but the whole matter is left subject to the action of the legislature at the approaching session.[1]

The assembly, on January 7, 1845, passed a new law under which it appropriated "the whole of the common-school fund," amounting to $1,515.84, to be expended under conditions essentially similar to those of the law of 1843, to which the present law is an amendment. It is significant that while sections 31 and 32 of the act of 1843 are repealed, section 33, which provides for the distribution of these books, is not repealed.

Two days later, January 9, 1845, the assembly, seemingly forgetting their action of the 7th, passed "An act supplementary to an act to establish a system of common schools in the State of Arkansas," of which section 1 repeals sections 31 and 32 of the act of February 3, 1843, which had already been repealed by section 5 of the act of January 7, 1845; section 2 directs the financial receiver of the State

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[1] Auditor's report, 1844, p. 64.

Bank of Arkansas to place $1,000 in specie to the credit of the State treasurer, and the auditor was to expend it "for the purchase of books for the use of common schools"; section 4 provides that the books be distributed "to the board of school commissioners of the several counties."

Further record is found that this law was never complied with, for—

> the whole of the common-school fund having been appropriated and withdrawn from the bank under act of January 7, 1845, on the 8th January, 1845, no funds remained out of which the appropriation could be paid.[1]

There is also an account of the operations of the law of January 7, 1845, in the auditor's report for 1846 (p. 19). Mr. Alexander Boileau was sent to New York and there purchased books, as given below. In reporting the matter Auditor Conway adds:

> Mr. Boileau performed his trust to the entire satisfaction of the auditor, and a list of the kinds of books purchased will be found in the table marked D, with the price (after adding 10 per cent on the cost and transportation) at which the boards of school commissioners will have to dispose of each as provided by law.

The auditor says also that for lack of funds he had not been able to complete the distribution, but had receipts from 22 counties.

The list of books, etc., is as follows:[2]

> A statement of the kinds of books purchased by the auditor for the use of common schools, under "An act to appropriate the whole of the common-school fund to the purchase of books for common schools," approved January 7, 1845, to which is added a sequel to Webster's Spelling Book, 300 copies of which George T. Coolidge & Bro., of New York City, furnished without charge; also a statement of the price at which the boards of school commissioners are to dispose of the books as provided by law, being an advance of 10 per cent on the cost and transportation.

Kinds of books.	Selling price.	Number purchased.
	Cents.	
United States Primer	5	1,575
Webster's Spelling Book	6½	4,200
Goodrich's Reader, No. 1	10	1,044
No. 2	15	1,044
No. 3	25	1,044
Willard's History of the United States	30	600
Morse's Geography	50	450
Davies's Arithmetic, No. 1	15	750
No. 2	25	750
Gallaudet's Dictionary	30	525
Slates, 7 by 11 inches	15	750
Slate pencils, each		3,000
Slate pencils, per dozen	6	
Bullion's English Grammar	15	325
Root's copy books, for series of 4	30	384
Sequel to Webster's Spelling Book	25	

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[1] Auditor's report, 1846.

[2] The selling price is taken from the auditor's report; the number of copies purchased is from Shinn's History of Education in Arkansas.

In his report for 1848 the auditor says:

> The school books which the auditor, in accordance with law, purchased for the use of common schools have been a convenience in some of the counties, but in others it is believed but little has been done with them. The law respecting those books should be amended so that the board of school commissioners would have entire control of them, so that they might be disposed of for the benefit of the schools in the county, whether such schools be organized under the common-school law or not, for if they can not be used except for schools organized under our present common-school law, it is feared that in some of the counties they will never be brought in requisition.[1]

From this recital of the law and the facts it does not appear that these were "free textbooks" in the modern sense, and it is evident that the scheme was not a success, for a law of January 5, 1849, forbade the further expenditure of any part of the school funds for "books, maps, or stationery to be used in said common schools."

The books actually purchased do not seem to have been readily disposed of as the law directed, for a later act allowed them to be sold to private schools, since otherwise, as the law recites, the books might never get into circulation and so be entirely useless. Finally, a law, passed January 10, 1853, directed the county clerks to sell all of these books still on hand at public vendue.

THE ACT OF 1849.

On January 5, 1849, another school law was passed by the legislature. Among other things, it provided for the disposition of the seminary and saline lands, the control of which had been placed in their hands by Congress. It made the political township the unit of local school organization; once in two years a local board of 3 trustees was to be elected, whose duties were to take the school census, elect teachers, issue warrants, and supervise schools, when there was in their district "a sufficient fund."

It appropriated, to carry out the provisions of the act, the sum of $250,000, which was to be collected out of the sale of seminary and saline lands. Reynolds and Thomas, in their History of the University of Arkansas (p. 16), remark:

> The general assembly might have appropriated a million dollars as well, for nothing like the appropriation made ever came into the treasury from these sources to be distributed.

THE ACT OF 1851.

There was still some official opposition to the school system. At least there were certain officials who saw clearly enough the real trouble with the common schools and were courageous enough to acknowledge those causes.

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[1] Auditor's report, 1848, sup. to Laws, p. 213.

In his message to the assembly in November, 1850, Gov. John S. Roane argued against the success of the common schools because of the size of the State, the lack of population and means, and still more, because of the lack of educated men who might serve as teachers, and, as in the older States of the East, give tone, character, and trend to the educational uplift. For these reasons he thought it idle to try to follow in the steps of the older and more densely populated States. "All experience proves," he says, "that the common-school system when attempted in a country so sparsely populated as ours, has failed." He heartily condemned the transfer of the seminary fund to the common schools, seems to have been about the first to realize the insufficiency of those funds, which he characterizes as "a mere pittance," and thinks all that could be done at that time would be to establish one or more seminaries "offering the advantages of a liberal education," the public funds on hand to be used to reduce their expenses, and to repeal, if necessary, the law giving the seminary funds to the common schools.[1]

In 1851 another law was passed, making some changes and improvements, and tending to consolidate and simplify. It provided a township organization with county supervision, but concerned itself mainly with the administration of the sixteenth section. The county courts were given "a general jurisdiction, supervision, and control" of all matters pertaining to the common schools. A "common-school commissioner" was to be elected in each township where there were as many as 15 white pupils 5 to 21 years of age. This commissioner might lease or sell the sixteenth section at $2 per acre until twice offered, and after that at $1.25 per acre. The purchaser was given 10 years in which to pay. The county treasurer was made treasurer of the township funds and was required to keep them separate and distinct. The township commissioner was required to make a regular report of the condition of the school in his township. The county court was to give directions and instruction to the school commissioner. The offices of school trustees and commissioners were repealed, and the township school commissioner was required to perform their duties. The county court might, if it saw fit, appropriate certain county funds "to the establishment of an academy or high seminary of learning in said county," but if the court should not deem it advisable to establish such a seminary, then it "may apply the interest * * * to the support of common schools" whenever an equivalent was raised by private contribution, but no township funds might be consolidated without consent of the voters.

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[1] House Jour., 1850, pp. 32-33.

THE ACT OF 1853.

In his message to the assembly in November, 1852, Gov. Roane again says, after referring to the "vicious distribution policy" of the State:

> I am convinced from a careful investigation into the history of common schools and other public institutions of learning in other new States, and the practical operation of this law here at home, that no possible good has come of it, or ever can result to the State, or any considerable portion of the people. Common schools can prove beneficial only in thickly settled communities, and that, too, where seminaries of learning have previously been in successful operation, and the minds of the people prepared by a previous course of training for their reception. Before common schools can result in that general benefit claimed for them by their friends a sufficient number of the community must be men educated to prepare public opinion for such a course of instruction and to take charge of these schools in every neighborhood where they may be established.

He again recommends that the act distributing the seminary fund be repealed and that 3 seminaries be established, the graduates of which should be required to teach a definite number of years.

> Thus you will prepare the way for common schools, and by the time the system can be put into successful operation a sufficient number of young men will be educated and prepared to conduct them.[1]

In these extracts we again see the old struggle of the private seminary or academy against the common or public school, the aristocratic road to learning rather than the democratic one; but it it is only fair to say that at that time and place the seminary and the academy covered much of the ground that we to-day refer solely to the primary grades of the public school.

The act of 1853 made the school organization more connected and compact. Its effect was to produce a more workable law than previous acts had done, and to bring order out of the preexisting chaos. By the act of 1853, and in accord with the recommendation of the governor, the secretary of state, in addition to other duties, was made ex officio State commissioner of schools and required to gather information as to schools and the school fund and to report annually to the governor on their condition. The work in the county was unified by the election of a county "common-school commissioner," who became ex officio county school superintendent, and as such, had general supervision of its common schools. He was to advise and assist the township trustees in the performance of their duties. He was to write them letters, giving advice on the best manner of conducting common schools, constructing schoolhouses, and procuring competent teachers. He was to recommend the most approved textbooks, maps, charts, and apparatus, "and shall urge uniformity in the use of the same, as well as the manner of conducting common schools throughout the county." He was to make a report to the State school commissioner, to examine teachers, and grant certificates. The township funds were taken out of the hands of the county treasurer and put in charge of a township treasurer. This officer was also one of a board of 3 township trustees, who took the place of the township "common-school commissioner," of the act of 1851. Under the act of 1853 the township treasurer was to report to the county common-school commissioner on the number of children 5 to 18 years old, the number in school, the number of schools, amount of school funds, amount loaned, etc.

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[1] House Jour., 1852, pp. 25-26.

Besides private contributions, the school funds were derived from the sixteenth sections, from escheats, fines, forfeitures, seminary and saline lands, etc.—the sources from which the present permanent school fund is derived. There was, as yet, no taxation for schools.

Then there follows what was for that day a rather remarkable clause:

> All guardians residing in any township in any county, having the control of any ward or wards eligible to the common schools, shall be * * * required to send such ward or wards to some good school, if any common school be taught in the township in which the ward or wards reside, at least one-fourth of the time said common school may be taught.

Conviction of failure meant a fine of $5 to $25.

There was no general school law enacted after that of 1853 until that of 1866–67. The act of 1853 was amended in 1855 so as to require each county to elect "one common-school commissioner" and 3 township commissioners, although this was followed by another law at the same session exempting 7 counties from the provisions of the general act. The special act provided that in the counties there named the county courts should have entire control of the schools. The general act provided further that the lands of the sixteenth section still remaining unsold might be leased, or, as a last resort, sold for what they would bring. With the consent of the voters the county court might also establish "an academy or seminary of learning" with a part of the public funds, provided a like sum was raised by private subscription; by consent of the voters it could also consolidate the funds of the townships. The county courts, if they saw proper, might appoint "any number of examiners to examine into the condition of schools and into the qualification of teachers."

These supplementary acts indicate that some of the counties still clung to certain decentralizing features of the law of 1851, and that the more centralized system of 1853 did not come into being without protest. From this time there were various special acts. In 1856 one provided for a vote to see whether the fund from a certain sixteenth section should be vested in the Princeton Male and Female Academies. This may be counted as the expiring effort of the old privileged classes to get for themselves the bounty of the General Government which had been intended for all. Finally, an act of March 21, 1862, forbade the further sale of public lands of any kind belonging to the State until after the close of the Civil War and pledged those lands for the payment of the war debt.

The student is immediately impressed with the idea that the law of 1853 was by far the best and most workable of all passed to that date. A working system was now being developed from the township trustees of the local school up through the county superintendent to the State superintendent, and there is here a clearly marked tendency toward centralization. But, at best, the friends of common-school education faced dilemmas which were, of necessity, fatal to their hopes. If they sold the school lands, the small amount which they would bring, because of the scattered population (only 1.8 per square mile in 1840 and 4 per square mile in 1850) and the abundance and cheapness of lands, made school support from this source an impossibility; if they did not sell the lands the sources of support were still further reduced. Between these difficulties we may not wonder that the most enthusiastic advocates of education hesitated. A fatal mistake was made in selling the lands and investing the proceeds instead of holding the land and awaiting the still greater increase of value that was sure to come with a growing population. But as has been said, the effort to preserve these lands intact for later generations was opposed by the present desire of the people for the best selections, and this in turn was aided by the educational experience of all the public men in the State. As in the case of the seminary lands, so in that of the sixteenth-section lands, private interests were allowed to take precedence over public welfare, for in 1856 the State school commissioner, in his report, said:

> I repeat, there is no question that the school lands are daily being sacrificed. It seems that the commissioners in many instances are eager for a wholesale disposal of the lands. The lands are converted into money, but no schools are established. By a combination of interested persons, the lands may be frequently sacrificed.

In 1858 the same officer said:

> The almost total inattention manifested by the county commissioners to the plain provisions of the law is the cause of much embarrassment in the practical operation of the law establishing the common-school system. The failure of our common-school system I do not think is attributable so much to any intrinsic defect in the law as from the total disregard of its requirements shown by many of the officers intrusted with its enforcement.

THE WORKING OF THE LAW OF 1853.

In November, 1854, Gov. Elias N. Conway said:

> We have a common-school law intended as a system of establishing common schools in all parts of the State; but for want of adequate means there are very few in operation under this law.

As a subsidiary fund he recommended that the county court be authorized, when the county so desired, to appropriate the poll tax for primary education. This, together with the seminary and saline funds, "added to the proceeds of the sales of sixteenth sections, and other school funds would insure to every county * * * some free schools."

This seems to have been the first official utterance proposing taxation as a solution of the problem.

REPORTS ON THE SCHOOLS, 1854–1861.

In 1854 David B. Greer, then secretary of state and ex officio "State commissioner of common schools," made his first report and thus summarized the difficulties: From many counties no report had been received and many counties, probably, had no school organization whatsoever under the law then in force, but were still acting under the older law; county school commissioners were embarrassed by defects in the law; frequent changes made it difficult to follow, and by the time the law began to be understood it was repealed. He said:

> The condition of common schools in the State presents a gloomy picture, but the friends of education should not be discouraged. The same difficulties experienced by Arkansas in their establishment have been more or less felt in all the new and sparsely settled States.

He reviews the means at the disposal of the school authorities: One thousand five hundred sections of school lands; seminary and saline lands, fines, forfeitures, and other sources. In many townships there were "ample means," but no effort had been made to establish schools. He failed to realize that without public taxation public schools can never succeed, but he did realize that—

> the great obstacle in the organization of common schools is not so much a deficiency in the means to sustain them, but it is attributable to the indifference that pervades the public mind on the subject of education.

He made at least one great step forward in educational statesmanship when he recommended the appointment of a State superintendent of public schools, "a man of ability and education," "an enlightened and zealous superintendent," who should go out among the people, and with the spirit of the missionary preach the doctrine of educational salvation.

Mr. Greer was able also to make some report on the condition of affairs in the counties. He reports school funds in the hands of the various school commissioners of the counties, as follows: Benton, $2,022.08; Bradley, $4,392.88; Carroll, $2,768; Columbia, $7,488; Conway, $2,564; Crittenden, $5,133.28; Dallas, $4,045.75; Desha, $9,794.29; Drew, $1,099.29; Franklin, $6,179.19; Hempstead,

$2,949.77; Independence, $4,399.45; Jackson, $7,022; Jefferson, $20,401.42; Johnson, $4,603.97; Lafayette, $2,142.06; Ouachita, $10,500; Phillips, $4,223.75; Pope, $3,397.67; Prairie, $4,298.52; Randolph, $4,865; Scott, $2,060.11; Sebastian, $6,645.77; Union, $21,795.71; Van Buren, $800.60; Washington, $9,228.74; Yell, $2,893.11. These sums were made up from three or more sources and represented the principal of the school funds which the counties had been able to accumulate up to that time. If we assume that all were invested in good securities, paying 10 per cent interest, they were still, in most cases, utterly inadequate for supporting the necessary schools. Curiously enough, these sums seem to bear little relation to the amounts which the same report says were expended by the various counties.

Chicot County reported 1 school, with 2 teachers, and a salary expenditure of $1,800 per annum. There were 57 children at school. Desha reported 2 schools, with 35 children, and a salary account of $400 per annum. Jackson County reported 22 free schools, with 500 children in attendance; salaries, $4,062. Jefferson County reported 10 schools, with 200 children; salaries for county schools, $1,200; 4 other teachers, at $30 per month. Ouachita reported 4 schools, with 141 pupils. Union County expended $732 for common schools. This was all in the way of report that the State school commissioner was able in his official capacity to coax out of careless, indifferent, and negligent school trustees. The school census of 1854 showed that there were 61,382 children under 21 years of age, indicating a population of about 40,000 between 6 and 21.

The report for the next two years (1854–1856) was even more discouraging. In it Mr. Greer does not attempt statistics. He says reports had been received from about one-half of the counties. These were, in nearly every case, vague, inexplicit, and unsatisfactory; funds were in a confused condition; debtors to the funds were in some cases insolvent; one township on the Mississippi River had a fund of $20,000 and few children, but this could not be transferred to the township in which the children actually lived without violating the agreement with the Federal Government. He thought there were about 25 common schools in the State, organized and sustained out of the common-school fund. "This," he says, "is a discouraging commentary upon our 'common school system.'" He acknowledges the "almost entire failure successfully to organize and establish common schools in Arkansas," and urged that the sale of school lands should be suspended.

Shinn estimates that in 1854 about 25 per cent of the pupils of school age were in the country schools and another 25 per cent in the private academies and in schools outside of the State. Gov. Elias N. Conway says in his message of 1854 that "good schools for educating the rising generation have been and are being established in almost every section of the State," although he adds in regard to the common schools that "for want of adequate means, there are few in operation."

In the report of S. M. Weaver, State school commissioner for 1859–60, we have a record of two counties:

> In Crawford County there were 10 schools, 9 male teachers, 1 female. The enumeration was 2,420. There was received from State funds, $143.30; from county fund, $1,431.72, and from township fund, $6,131, making a total of $7,706.02. The average wages paid the teachers was $27 per month. Poinsett County reported six schoolhouses and 927 children. The amount expended for common schools was $500, and the number of children attending, 80.

From the public school census of the State for 1860, Shinn reports that there were 652 common schools in operation, distributed as follows: Arkansas County, 7; Benton, 21; Bradley, 15; Crawford, 24; Conway, 19; Carroll, 24; Clark, 6; Calhoun, 8; Craighead, 2; Franklin, 22; Hempstead, 25; Hot Spring, 10; Independence, 21; Izard, 13; Jefferson, 12; Johnson, 49; Lawrence, 3; Lafayette, 8; Madison, 22; Mississippi, 2; Monroe, 8; Montgomery, 4; Newton, 4; Ouachita, 28; Perry, 8; Phillips, 22; Poinsett, 11; Polk, 9; Pulaski, 13; Randolph, 10; Saline, 40; Searcy, 6; Sebastian, 21; Scott, 10; Sevier, 11; St. Francis, 15; Union, 29; Washington, 57; White, 29; and Yell, 2. Twelve counties are not reported. Some of these were counties where public schools had been successfully operated in the years immediately preceding 1860, and he estimates that 750 schools for the year 1860 would not be far wrong. According to the same report, there were 19,242 pupils in attendance.

Gov. Conway was not discouraged. In his message in 1858 he again urges that county courts be allowed to appropriate their poll tax to schools if they "choose," and suggests that those "rewards and immunities" mentioned in the constitution of 1836 for "the promotion and improvement of arts, science, commerce, manufactures, and natural history" be provided for by law.

In his message of 1860 he points out some of the difficulties and weaknesses of the system:

> The seminary and saline funds, when distributed to the several counties * * * are placed under the control of the county authorities * * *. The common-school fund arising from other sources must be sufficiently large in many of the communities to justify the establishement of some free schools. But as the funds and common schools are, by law, placed under the control of the county and township officers, the executive has not sufficient information * * * to determine whether the fund is properly taken care of or not, and sacredly applied, as it should be, toward the education of the children of the county.[1]

To the same session of the assembly (1860) Gov. Henry M. Rector reported that out of 55 county common-school commissioners only

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[1] House Jour., 1860, p. 30.

3 had reported to the State school commissioner, "two of which reports are totally devoid of the required information." He estimates that under the law 7,755 men were required "to perform what 10 would do better." He proposed to take such seminary funds as were not already appropriated to the common schools to build two colleges, and remarks:

> The common-school system also seems to be radically defective. In the last report made by the secretary of state, as State commissioner of common schools, it may be seen that there are only 25 common schools organized and kept up in the State from the common-school fund. This is a sad commentary upon the present system.[1]

Such were the final official words on the common schools of ante bellum Arkansas. The Federal censuses for 1840, 1850, and 1860 give us a few additional figures which may be added to supplement the meager State reports.

From the Federal census of 1840 we find:

Academies and grammar schools	8
Number of scholars	300
Primary and common schools	113
Number of scholars	2,614
Number of scholars at public charge	None reported.
Number of white persons over 20 years of age who can not read and write	6,567
Number of white persons over 20 years of age in State	30,555
Percentage of illiterate adults	21.5

Of the 39 counties comprising the State of Arkansas in 1840, 29 are reported as having academies, grammar schools, or primary and common schools; none, according to this report, being at public charge. Thirteen were reported as being in Washington County, 8 in Carroll, and 7 in Sevier.

The census of 1850 reports the school attendance as returned by families at 23,361. Classified according to the character of the institution there were:

(1) Three colleges with 14 teachers and 150 pupils, with a total annual income of $3,100 derived from miscellaneous, or, as it is called in the report, "other sources."

(2) Ninety "academies and other schools," with 126 teachers and 2,407 pupils, report a total income from "other sources" of $27,937.

(3) The public schools reported numbered 353, with 355 teachers and 8,493 pupils. These report a total income of $43,763, which was divided according to its source: From endowment, $1,720; from taxation, $250; from public funds, $8,959; from other sources, $32,834. Of these 353 schools, 91 are reported as using public funds. From eight counties there was no report; two counties report but a single school each; two report but 2 each, while Jefferson, Poinsett, Scott, and White Counties were reported with 10 schools each; Pope and Pulaski with 11 each; Independence, Madison, St. Francis, and

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[1] House Jour., 1860, p. 102.

Sevier, 12; Lawrence, 14; Saline, 20; Carroll, 23; and Washington, 30. The number of schools, however, bore little relation to the income from public funds. Out of 51 counties in the State, only 14 reported any income from public funds, ranging from $2,006 in Ouachita down to $75 in Carroll. But a single county reported any school income as derived from taxation. This was $250 in Desha. Only two reported any income from endowment, which was $1,400 in Chicot and $320 in Hempstead.

But, unfortunately, these figures tell little, for the sources of the "endowment" fund and of the "public funds" are not known, except that they were not derived from taxation, and it is not certain that the "other sources" does not include some "public funds."

As adjuncts to the work of education it may be noted that in 1850 there were 9 weekly newspapers in Arkansas, with a total yearly circulation of 377,000 copies. There was one public library containing 250 volumes and two Sunday-school libraries with 170 volumes. In 1860 the public libraries had increased to 102, with 22,210 volumes, and the Sunday-school libraries to 13, with 1,011.

In 1850 there were 65,395 white adults 20 years of age and over in the State. Of this number 16,809, or 25.7 per cent could not read or write. The census for 1860 reports that these illiterate adults had increased to 23,642. It reports the educational resources of the State as follows:

(1) There were 4 colleges, with 9 teachers and 225 pupils. They had a total income of $300 from public funds and $5,285 from other sources.

(2) Of academies and other schools there were 109, with 168 teachers and 4,415 pupils. These reported $6,300 from endowment, $700 from taxation, $8,645 from public funds, and $52,501 from other sources.

(3) Of public schools there were 727, with 757 teachers and 19,242 pupils; they had an income of $200 from endowment, $1,100 from taxation, $13,356 from public funds, and $105,957 from other sources.

In these census tables it is impossible to discover the line of demarcation between what are called "public schools" and what are called "academies." The difference represents probably, in part, the style of title preferred by the individual giving the information to the census taker. According to the report academies received on an average $143 each from endowment and public funds, while the public schools received a little more than $20 each from the same sources. The average income of the academies from all sources was a little over $542, while that of the public schools was a little less than $180 each. It will be noted, further, that while, according to the Federal census of 1860 the "academies and other schools" received in round numbers 23 per cent of their income from endowment, taxation, and public funds, and 77 per cent from "other sources," the "public schools" received only 20 per cent from endowment, taxation, and public funds, and 80 per cent from "other sources." In other words, the public schools, from the standpoint of support, were less public than the academies, which were confessedly private institutions.

To summarize the conditions affecting the public-school situation in Arkansas up to 1861:

It is evident that the income from the land funds had accomplished little toward universal education in Arkansas. It is equally true that much had been accomplished in an educational way, but it was mainly through the instrumentality of the private academy supported by private endowment and tuition fees. The State, so far as it had entered at all into the educational field, performed only the duties of administration. The public lands donated for schools had been badly managed in the main. They had often been sacrificed; the money received had sometimes been badly invested, and in part lost in the financial panic of 1837 and succeeding years. The State still regarded the business of education as private, personal, optional, patriarchal, aristocratic, and religious. The consciousness of social solidarity had not dawned, and the State felt itself under little educational obligation to the rising generation. This was not peculiar to Arkansas. It was the spirit of the time.

The question of taxation as the main source of school support had, perhaps, hardly been seriously considered. There had been, however, a small income from this source, and that the modern idea was dawning is found in the recommendation of the State school commissioner and of the governor in 1854, that the general assembly authorize the county court to appropriate the poll tax for school purposes. But this proposal did not become a law until the promulgation of the constitution of 1868.

There had been developed out of the lands donated by the Federal Government for school purposes two funds that in part survived the risks of war and are to-day of material help to primary education. These were:

(1) The permanent school fund, made up of the proceeds of the sales of Government lands other than the sixteenth sections but including the seminary and saline lands; proceeds from the sale of lands and other property accruing to the State by escheat, or from sales of estrays, unclaimed dividends, or unclaimed shares of estates of deceased persons, etc.

(2) The sixteenth-section fund, made up entirely of the proceeds of the sale of the sixteenth sections.

The statistical history of these two funds is given in Chapter IX.

CHAPTER IV.

THE MURPHY ADMINISTRATION, 1864–1868.

"Inter arma leges silent" is a maxim that applies to education even more than to law. A short act here and there relating to some phase of school administration appears in the legislation of the war period, but nothing more. The Confederate government in Arkansas was pressed too hard by the Federal authorities to think of education. Confederate success in Arkansas was short-lived. Gen. Steele, of the Union Army, occupied Little Rock September 10, 1863. From that time Little Rock and that part of the State to the north and northeast of the river remained under Union control till the end of the war. The Confederate State government withdrew to the southwest and established its headquarters at Washington, Hempstead County, where a session of the legislature was held September 22 to October 2, 1864.

With the conquest of the northern half of the State there came comparative quiet, and with it the desire of and necessity for civil government. Union meetings were held in Fort Smith, Van Buren, and other places, and by a proclamation of President Lincoln, December 8, 1863, the inhabitants of this section of the State were authorized to renew their allegiance and form a State government. The local leader in this movement was Isaac Murphy, a native of Pittsburgh, Pa., who had migrated to Arkansas at an early age and had for many years practiced law and pedagogy. He had been a strong Union man, and had alone voted against the ordinance of secession, and to him the people looked for guidance. The convention met at Little Rock January 4–23, 1864, and drew up a constitution in which they reproduced the educational sections of the constitution of 1836.

Isaac Murphy was chosen by the convention provisional governor of the reconstructed State and was inaugurated January 20, 1864. He was then chosen by popular vote for the four-year term and was again inaugurated on April 18, 1864. He found himself representing one of two rival governments in the State; there were two armies in the field; there was not a dollar in his treasury; indeed all the machinery of a State government was in the hands of the Confederates, and Murphy's machinery had to be created de novo, but he gained many adherents by an offer of pardon to Confederates while the war was yet in progress and many more by liberal interpretation of the President's proclamation of pardon after it was over. Taken as a whole, his administration was conservative and pacific, and with the return of the general peace a period of recuperation began.

In his message to the Union legislature of 1864 Gov. Murphy states that no public schools were then in existence and recommends a system of universal education. He says:

> As this is the first session of the legislature of the free State of Arkansas, I trust that your honorable body will provide by law that every child in the State shall have an opportunity of acquiring a good education, and not only give the opportunity, but make the education of the rising generation a duty to the State, to be enforced by proper penalties. Ignorance leads to slavery; intelligence to freedom.[1]

A bill to amend the existing school law, introduced May 28, 1864, proposed that one-tenth of 1 per cent of the tax on all property be kept and paid in as a common-school fund to be used for lands and buildings.[2]

In the house journal there is a long and eloquent report from the chairman of the committee on education, in which he presents a heavy indictment of the ante bellum management of the school lands, the sting of which is not entirely removed even when we make ample allowance for partisan bitterness. He says:

> They have mismanaged and squandered to a great extent the appropriations or donations made by the United States to this State for school purposes. * * * We have had over 1,000,000 acres of land appropriated in this State to purposes of education, but under the management of our public functionaries it has amounted to almost nothing.

He then urges that a State superintendent of education be appointed and that a common-school fund, based on ad valorem taxation of all property, be created, but nothing definite was done by this legislature.[3]

The first legislative action under the constitution of 1864 was that by the assembly of 1866–67, which was so largely made up of Confederates that it was styled by its enemies the "rebel" legislature. In his message to this body, in November, 1866, Gov. Murphy urges the establishment of a free-school system based on taxation. He said:

> The people are beginning to feel that ignorance is a crime deeply injurious to the peace and happiness of society, for which not only parents, but the government also, are responsible. The experience of all enlightened countries has proved that popular education can only be diffused through the instrumentality of the government, by stringent legal requirements on parents, and furnishing the necessary means to build up and sustain schools for all classes. * * * To the intelligence and patriotism of the legislature I respectfully refer this urgent and important subject, trusting that measures may be adopted to inaugurate a system of public schools that will place our

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[1] House Jour., 1864, p. 21. [2] Senate Jour., 1864, pp. 180–182. [3] House Jour., 1864, pp. 87–96.

> State on an equality with other States in educational facilities. * * * Hereafter, if the State has free schools, they must be supported by taxation, as in other States.[1]

In the same month F. R. Earle, sometime teacher and major in the Confederate army, college president, and representative of the old régime, reported an educational bill in which he condemned the old or ante bellum system as "wholly inadequate to the work and incapable of satisfying the demands of the hour." The bill proposed to make education a department by itself and with its own head, the basis of support being public taxation.

It should be remembered that the members of this assembly had lived under the ante bellum common-school régime and had seen its successes and its shortcomings. They clearly realized that public education without public taxation was impossible. On March 18, 1867, they passed a law which has since become in many respects the organic basis of public education in Arkansas. It is particularly worthy of note, because it was the work of men who had long been residents of the State, had seen service in the Confederate Army, and had not been coerced by outside influences. It shows to a remarkable degree the capacity of its framers to realize the immense changes that had come into southern life as a result of the war, their power to divest themselves of the ideas under which they had been reared, and their ability to adapt themselves and the organization of their government to these new conditions.

The act of March 18, 1867, entitled "An act to establish a common-school system in the State," provided:

> That for the purpose of establishing a system of common-school education in this State a tax is hereby levied of 20 cents on every $100 worth of the taxable property in this State, and shall be collected and paid into the State treasury annually in the same manner as now provided by law for the other State taxes: *Provided*, This tax shall not be levied on the property of persons of color.

The second section prohibited the use of said fund for any other purpose than that of common schools. The third section provided that all white children between the ages of 6 and 21 should be entitled to the provisions of the law. The fourth section provided for the election of a superintendent of public instruction by the electors of the State, beginning at the general election in 1868, and for an appointment by the legislature for the interim. Sections 5, 6, and 7 prescribed the duties of said officer. Section 8 provided for the election of a county school commissioner in each county at the general election of 1868. Sections 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14 prescribed the general duties of said commissioner, which included the making of reports on pupils, salaries, etc., the examining of teachers and granting certificates, prorating the county apportionment among the separate schools, etc. Section 15 constituted each congressional township a school district. Section 16 enabled any incorporated town to become a school district. Section 17 provided for the election of three trustees in each school district. Sections 18, 19, and 20 prescribed the duties of said trustees. Section 21 made the school year begin on the 1st day of October. Section 22 provided that if the trustees should—

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[1] Senate Jour., 1868, pp. 40–42.

> fail to have a school taught of at least three months' duration in any one year, or the president thereof fail to make the annual report as required under this act, said district shall not be entitled to any part of the school funds provided under this act, and the common-school commissioner shall proceed to apportion the moneys of the district thus failing among the districts which have complied with the requirements of this act.

In accord with the terms of this act the general assembly in joint session on March 19, 1867, chose F. R. Earle, then president of Cane Hill College, the first superintendent of public instruction in Arkansas. He was not, however, allowed to exercise the duties of his office, for by a military order of Gen. E. O. C. Ord, in charge of Military District No. 4, dated August 9, 1867, the validity of his election was denied and "the services of the office," it was declared, "are not needed." Prof. Shinn remarks, however, that "many schools were opened under the new law."

The service of this régime, then, was not so much the actual organization of schools, but the creation of resources which made the schools of the future a possibility. For this service the "rebel" legislature of 1866–67 and the Union governor, Murphy, deserve to be held in grateful remembrance by the people of Arkansas.

This was the end of educational efforts by the Murphy régime. When he went out of office on July 2, 1868, he turned over to his reconstruction successor $50,500 in United States bonds and $203,923.95 in United States currency.[1] Furthermore, the State auditor's report shows that there was collected under the law of March 18, 1867, on account of public schools, and paid into the State treasury, from April 25, 1867, to July 2, 1868, inclusive:

First quarter, 1868	$3,983.51
Second quarter, 1868	59,870.05
Part of third quarter, ending July 2, 1868	1,021.76
	64,875.32

This sum represents the results of the first general taxes ever levied in the State of Arkansas for public education.

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[1] See treasurer's report dated Nov. 23, 1868, pp. 41 and 43. Murphy himself says that he left in the treasury $122,587. The difference is perhaps due to the deduction of claims chargeable against the general revenue and may be taken as the net surplus turned over to the new administration.

CHAPTER V.

THE RECONSTRUCTION RÉGIME, 1868–1874.

In the meantime Congress had passed the act of March 2, 1867, generally known as the reconstruction act. In accord with the terms of this act a convention met in Little Rock in January, 1868, and adopted a new constitution of which the educational provisions are as follows:

SECTION 1. A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence among all classes being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the general assembly shall establish and maintain a system of free schools for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in this State between the ages of 5 and 21 years, and the funds appropriated for the support of common schools shall be distributed to the several counties in proportion to the number of children and youths therein between the ages of 5 and 21 years, in such manner as shall be prescribed by law; but no religious or other sect or sects shall ever have any exclusive right to, or control of any part of, the school funds of this State.

SEC. 2. The supervision of public schools shall be vested in a superintendent of public instruction and such other officers as the general assembly may provide. The superintendent of public instruction shall receive such salary and perform such duties as shall be prescribed by law.

SEC. 3. The general assembly shall establish and maintain a State university, with departments for instruction in teaching, in agriculture, and the natural sciences, as soon as the public-school fund will permit.

SEC. 4. The proceeds of all lands that have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State, and not otherwise appropriated by the United States or this State; also all mines [moneys], stocks, bonds, lands, and other property now belonging to any fund for purposes of education; also the net proceeds of all sales of lands and other property and effects that may accrue to this State by escheat, or from sales of estrays, or from unclaimed dividends or distributive shares of the estates of deceased persons, or from fines, penalties, or forfeitures; also any of the proceeds of the sales of public lands which may have been, or hereafter may be, paid over to this State (Congress consenting); also the grants, gifts, or devises that may have been, or hereafter may be, made to this State, and not otherwise appropriated by the terms of the grant, gift, or devise, shall be securely invested and sacredly preserved as a public-school fund, which shall be the common property of the State, the annual income of which fund, together with $1 per capita, to be annually assessed on every male inhabitant of this State over the age of 21 years, and so much of the ordinary annual revenue of the State as may be necessary, shall be faithfully appropriated for establishing and maintaining the free schools and the university in this article provided for, and for no other uses or purposes whatever.

SEC. 7. In case the public-school fund shall be insufficient to sustain a free school at least three months in every year in each school district, in this State, the general assembly shall provide by law for raising such deficiency by levying such tax upon all taxable property in each county, township, or school district as may be deemed proper.

> SEC. 9. Provision shall also be made by general laws for raising such sum or sums of money, by taxation or otherwise, in each school district, as may be necessary for the building and furnishing of a sufficient number of suitable schoolhouses for the accommodation of all the pupils within the limits of the several school districts.

As will be quickly noticed, this constitution showed the legislative tendency which characterized many others of that generation. It was prolix and detailed, but it fixed the following progressive features:

1. The education of all, white and black; other efforts had not gone beyond the whites.
2. The permanent school fund, which in one form or another was as old as the State itself.
3. A general tax for education, which had been inaugurated under the former régime.
4. The poll tax of $1 for public schools. This had been discussed in earlier years, but without results.
5. The principle of local taxation to supplement general funds. This feature seems to have been entirely new in Arkansas.

The fundamental laws under which the educational authorities were now to work, had they been enacted under other circumstances and enjoyed the support of the best elements of the population, might have brought success.

Prof. Shinn, who may be taken as a representative of the old native element, says of the constitution:

> In the main it was an admirable document, and had it been left to the free vote of all the citizens might have lived a longer life. The educational law of 1866 was retarded, and the measures substituted, although equally broad and comprehensive, had to bear the odium of reconstruction. Despite this there was a continuous growth, and when the release came there was a bound forward which was remarkable.

The reconstruction constitution went into effect on April 1, 1868. The assembly met on the 2d and remained in session till the 23d of July. To this assembly Gov. Murphy said, in his message of April 3:

> On the subject of education, I will say in addition to what is said in the message referred to [that of Nov. 8, 1866], that every child in the State of sane mind should receive a thorough American education, be taught the value and uses of freedom, the nature of republican government, and the importance of selecting honest and capable agents to administer the affairs of the State. In addition to the usual literature of the schools, also the great moral and religious principles on which all republican governments rest as a safe foundation. Education, morality, and religion, universally diffused, are the foundation rocks on which freedom must rest to secure its prosperity; and on the same basis, prosperity, wealth, and honor are secure of permanent and accelerated advancement.[1]

Powell Clayton, the reconstruction successor of Murphy, was inaugurated as governor on July 2, 1868. In his inaugural message he has a good deal to say on education. He advocated in particular that the county superintendent system be abolished and that circuit superintendents be appointed instead. The assembly was complaisant and on July 23 passed a school law which had many good features. Its greatest fault was in the circuit superintendents, and this weakness the sponsors of the law soon recognized. Says Prof. Shinn:

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[1] Senate Jour., 1868, p. 18.

> Fully one-half of the State fund in 1868 and 1869 was paid to circuit superintendents. This feature of the law was especially odious to the people, and the Reconstructionists themselves recoiled. In 1871 they repealed the circuit superintendencies and substituted county superintendencies.[1] One can but reflect that had there been money and had there been 10 men in the ranks qualified to perform the duties of the office, this measure would have added value to the schools. The reports of these officers show that they were not adepts in grading, examining, or organizing schools.

Its greatest feature was perhaps that it devoted the poll tax to the public schools—a disposition of those funds which had been urged by Gov. E. N. Conway as early as 1854. Says Prof. Shinn:

> This was an excellent feature in the law. The State and local taxes fell only upon property; the poll tax of $1 fell upon every male citizen and made every man a contributor to the school fund; but the payment of the poll tax was not then nor is it now a condition to the enjoyment of school privileges. All children attend the schools whether their parents have paid the poll tax or not. Small as is the tax, its payment creates a spirit of self-dependence and destroys to a large degree the idea that only the rich support the schools.

A further recognition of the value of this law is found in its practical reenactment, with the exception of the provisions for circuit superintendents, by the Baxter (conservative) legislature of 1873 (law of Apr. 29, 1873) and the further fact that it was the basis of subsequent school legislation (e. g., law of Dec. 7, 1875).

The chief characteristics of the law of July 23, 1868, were as follows:

> Sections 1 and 2 defined the common-school fund in the terms above recited in the constitution. Sections 3 to 12 created a board of common-school commissioners and defined its duties. Sections 13 to 17 prescribed the method of creating school districts. Sections 18 to 22 prescribed the manner in which the people of the districts should meet, organize, elect school trustees, and levy local taxes. Sections 23 to 48 defined the duties of the trustees. Sections 49 to 55 prescribed the qualifications and duties of teachers. Section 56 provided for a teachers' institute and cast its expense, not exceeding $50, upon the school fund of the county.
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> Section 57 provided for the appointment by the governor of a circuit superintendent of schools for each judicial circuit of the State and prescribed his duties. Sections 58 to 73 further defined the duties of the circuit superintendents. They were: (*a*) To examine and license teachers. (*b*) To require each teacher to take the following oath: "I do solemnly swear that I will honestly and faithfully support the constitution and laws of the State of Arkansas and that I will encourage all other persons so to do; that I will never countenance or aid in the secession of this State from the United States; that I will endeavor to inculcate in the minds of youth sentiments of patriotism and loyalty and will faithfully and impartially perform the duties of the office of teacher according to the best of my ability. So help me God." (*c*) To hold institutes. (*d*) To visit schools and to see that the laws were enforced. (*e*) To apportion the

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[1] This was done by the law of Apr. 29, 1873, not in 1871.

school fund. (*f*) To report to the State superintendent. (*g*) To number the school districts.

Section 73 provided for the 10 circuit superintendents a salary of $3,000 per annum each. Sections 74 to 95 prescribed the duties of the State superintendent. Section 96 consigns the proceeds of the poll tax to the common-school fund, from which it has never since been diverted. Section 107 provided for separate schools for the races. This has always remained the law.

Thomas Smith, who had been a surgeon in the United States Army, became first State superintendent under the reconstruction constitution. His office was opened August 1, 1868. To him fell the responsible duty of organizing the public schools of Arkansas for the whole people and on the basis of public taxation. His task was not an easy one. There was some opposition to be met. There was much ignorance to be enlightened; worse still, there was indifference to be quickened. He complains also of the real and palpable difficulty of getting properly educated and progressive persons to act as school trustees, but bears witness to "the hearty manner in which old citizens of the State are giving their influence in support of free schools." There was difficulty also in the matter of regulating the local taxes. In some districts the electors refused to allow a levy by the county court, in others the court refused to make the levy voted, while "excessive taxes have in some instances been authorized by district meetings." The State levy was later fixed by law at 20 cents on the hundred and was—

> paid into the State treasury as other taxes, and this, together with the accrued interest on the vested school fund and the poll tax [$1], is apportioned to the several counties according to the number of children of school age [a violation of the terms of the congressional grant of the sixteenth sections].

To these three sources of income must be added a fourth, the local or district tax, the amount of which was optional with the district, but which was not to exceed 5 mills on the dollar for country districts or 7½ mills in the city districts. (Law of 1871.)

Dr. Smith's first report, dated November 13, 1868, deals with the school situation as it then was under the new law. There was little to report beyond the organization of the State and circuit superintendents into a State board of education in accord with the law. The latter was required to put forth all efforts to organize the counties into school districts and make enumerations so that the funds might be apportioned. Of these it was reported there was $50,000 available for school support during that fall and winter "after deducting the amount necessary for paying the salaries of the circuit superintendents."

The funds reported were:

On hand July 3, 1868	$64, 875. 32
Amount received in third quarter	2, 065. 10
Amount transferred from general revenue	943. 55
Total	67, 883. 97

The schools established by the Freedmen's Bureau were taken over and incorporated into the State school system. Substantial progress was being made all along the line, but in summarizing the situation in his second report, dated December 20, 1870, and covering the whole period from July 23, 1868, to September 30, 1870, Supt. Smith, falling perhaps into the ways of thought of his educational predecessors and ignoring the chronic lack of ready cash, seeks to put the onus of failure—certainly in part—on causes other than the true one. He says:

> The past educational history of the State clearly proves that the failure to establish a practical system of public instruction was not owing to the want of adequate means at the disposal of the State for the accomplishment of that object, for the United States Government had made munificent grants of land for the support of common schools, and the State legislature had passed several acts with a view to the creation of a school fund and the establishment of a system of public schools, and yet, for the want of a proper cooperation on the part of the people, the whole enterprise proved a lamentable failure, and much of the land which was designed for the promotion of education in the State was sold, the funds squandered, and the children, whose property it was, thus defrauded of their rights.[1]

Great annoyance and inconvenience was felt at this time also by the necessity which forced teachers to take their pay in funds more or less uncurrent. By an act of 1869 *treasurer's certificates*, with accumulated interest at 8 per cent, were made receivable for State dues. They were, of course, paid in for taxes, passed out again as a part of the State apportionment for schools, and as such had to be received by the teachers in payment for their services. There was neither specie nor currency in the State treasury with which to redeem this scrip, and it was therefore subjected to a heavy discount for cash, in some cases amounting to one-half. Friends of education were discouraged; teachers were disheartened, and many left the State; school attendance began to fall off; and it was thought that salvation could come to the system only through the repeal of the scrip provision, because when a little later currency again came into use the door for peculation was at once opened.

Says one of the circuit superintendents, December 1, 1872:

> Improper advantage has been taken by all the collectors of the scrip provision, and while in each county a large percentage of the taxes has been paid in currency during the year, none of it has ever reached the treasurers of the State or county.[2]

The 10 circuit superintendents, with a salary of $3,000 each, were another source of dissatisfaction, for it was thought that too large a percentage of the total school income was consumed by them. The State superintendent said that some had "accomplished good results," while "others, for want of adaptability to the work, or from not giving their undivided attention to their duties, have not done so well." Then the school attendance began to fall off, and the superintendent, perhaps unwittingly, gave what was probably the true cause. He says:

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[1] Superintendent's report, 1869–70, p. 11.

[2] School report, 1872, p. 150.

> This is doubtless owing to the want of efficiency on the part of circuit superintendents. Had they given less attention to politics and devoted themselves more fully and energetically to traveling over their districts, visiting schools, conferring with trustees, talking to the people on the subject of education, and holding teachers' institutes in the several counties, the result would have been quite different.[1]

The subsidiary reports for 1871–72 are exceedingly imperfect—so imperfect that no just comparison can be made with the years that went before, nor with those that followed. The circuit superintendents performed their duties with less regard to accuracy and fullness than in previous years. The student is driven inevitably to the conclusion that, seeing the coming end of their régime, they determined to get as much out of it as possible, financially and otherwise, at the least expense of labor to themselves.

On January 6, 1873, State Supt. Smith was succeeded in office by J. C. Corbin, a negro graduate of Oberlin, who came into Arkansas with the Federal Army and was now rising to prominence under the reconstruction régime. He remained in office till October 30, 1874, when the promulgation of the new constitution ended reconstruction and restored the native white element to power.

In his report for the year ending September 30, 1873, and dated March 5, 1874, Mr. Corbin finds much of which to complain: The constant reports coming to him of inadequate facilities, insufficient teaching force, lack of funds, and crowded quarters were modified by the cheering news that opposition was dying out. But the abolition of the circuit superintendents (act of Apr. 29, 1873) and the appointment of county superintendents in their place increased the duties of the superintendent's office, while his clerical force and appropriations had been lessened. Qualifications of teachers had been raised, but progress was seriously handicapped by depreciation of the circulating medium. In many districts there were too many separate schools. The school funds and the school lands were in a deplorable condition. Some of the lands had been sold, payment made in part, all records lost in the din of war, and it was no longer possible to decide in whom the title vested.

The tax on the sixteenth section and other school lands had been merged for some years in the general fund, while it belonged to the schools; county school funds were lumped; the warrants received first were paid first; greedy trustees got all, modest ones got nothing; some accounts were overdrawn; some districts were bankrupt, others had invested more in schoolhouses than they could raise by taxation; it was necessary for the school district to levy enough tax to run the schools for 3 months before it got any help from the State apportionment; and the limit of 20 cents on the hundred was too small to meet these demands. Worse still, taxes paid to the collectors in specie and greenbacks were paid into the treasury by these thrifty individuals in State scrip or school warrants, at immense profit to themselves and at infinite damage to the schools. The teachers, who were sometimes employed at what seemed good salaries as teaching goes, had to take this uncurrent currency or get nothing, and then under force of necessity discount it at ruinous rates. The scrip and warrants then floated about the country till they fell into the hands of the tax collectors. In June, 1871, only 20 counties out of 61 are reported as receiving any United States currency in their apportionment of school funds; and beyond doubt depreciation, together with financial ignorance and mismanagement, to use no broader terms, helped to destroy the system.

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[1] Report, 1871-72, p. 8.

To these evils are to be added an interpretation of the school law under which the superintendent could no longer apportion the 2-mill tax in the usual way.

The schools had been supported out of three general sources (law of Mar. 25, 1871): (1) A State tax of 2 mills; (2) a per capita or poll tax; (3) interest on the permanent school fund.

The attorney general interpreted the law of 1873 to forbid the inclusion of the first of these items in the general distribution. This delayed the whole apportionment, and up to March 5, 1874, there had been apportioned only about $55,000 in scrip and warrants (then worth about 35 cents on the dollar and equivalent to $19,000 in currency), which was to be divided among 73 counties. It seems safe to say that the schools of the reconstruction period literally died of starvation.

The school authorities had said in 1871 that the system was being injured by adverse legislation. It seems that this interpretation of the attorney general put a period to the public schools. There were no available funds with which to maintain them; their administration did not command the support of the better classes of the population; there was much political turmoil, which in April and May, 1874, developed into what is known locally as the Brooks-Baxter war—in reality a struggle between the older conservative element and the newer and less experienced reconstruction element. No other report on the schools is found till that of Superintendent Hill for the year July 1, 1875, to June 30, 1876; so that the period between March 5, 1874, and December 7, 1875, may be safely regarded as a transitional period.

But it would be an error to suppose that the reconstruction period of public education in Arkansas was without influence. On the contrary, it was fruitful in results. It found that the old ante bellum idea of public schools endowed by gifts of public lands had lost its hold on the educational leaders among the conservatives who had already declared for a system based on public taxation. This idea of public taxation for schools was enacted into law and put into execution perhaps more easily by the reconstructionists (radicals) than could have been done by the conservatives.

The leading features fixed in the school system during the Reconstruction period were:

1. The superintendent of public instruction as a separate State officer, recommended before the war but never attained.
2. The education of the whole people, both black and white.
3. A general State property tax.
4. A general poll tax, recommended before the war but never attained.
5. Local or special taxes.
6. Discussion of compulsory education, faint and short-lived, yet a beginning.
7. Professional consciousness and organization as seen in the State board of education, teachers' institutes, teachers' associations, State and local, and the beginnings of an educational press.
8. The Arkansas Journal of Education, a monthly, founded and edited for at least 3 years (1870–72) by Supt. Thomas Smith, which was of service as a medium of communication between teachers and the constituted authorities, and is, after the reports of the superintendent, our main source for the educational history of the period. It is of value in particular for the local educational color which it furnishes. From its pages we are made to realize the difficulties which many honest and earnest teachers had to meet and the inadequate resources with which they carried on the struggle. It is evident from a perusal of its pages that the new educational system had taken no vital hold on the life and thought of the people of the State. But this was due in large measure to ignorance and indifference rather than to avowed hostility, and the remedy was then, as now, publicity.

The system did not escape accusation of fraud and embezzlement; that there was indirectly much of this on a small scale the leaders of that day admitted; but a review of the work of the reconstruction period, taken as a whole and in the light of subsequent events, constrain the student to think that they did perhaps more than was to have been expected toward laying the foundations of the present successful school system.

The statistics for the reconstruction period became progressively worse and worse. Those for the first two years are fair; for the next two poor; and after that they are almost a total blank. This failure is perhaps largely due to the circuit superintendents, who did not as a body rise to their opportunities, but imperfect as these statistics are we are under the necessity of using them for want of better, and they will be found in their proper place as a part of the general statistical exhibit.

CHAPTER VI.

THE RESTORATION OF HOME RULE, 1874-1894.

Reconstruction in Arkansas practically came to an end on May 14, 1874, when President Grant by proclamation recognized the claim of Elisha Baxter to be the legal governor, at the same time commanding his rival Brooks and his followers to disperse. Power was thus left in the hands of the Conservatives. The legislature asked the people whether a constitutional convention should be called. Their reply was an overwhelming affirmative, and the convention met in Little Rock on July 14, 1874. The constitution, which removed all disfranchisements and registrations, was submitted to the people on October 13, 1874. It was accepted by a large majority; was officially proclaimed as adopted October 30, 1874, and has since remained the organic law of the State. The office of State superintendent of public instruction was that day abolished, for while this position was formally provided for in the constitution of 1868 its creation was left by the constitution of 1874 to the discretion of the legislature. This was in all probability intentional, for the reason that J. C. Corbin, the incumbent, was persona non grata to the party then in power, although his worth and ability were later recognized by that party, for he served the State many years after that date as a teacher and educational leader of his race.

Prof. Shinn has marked the progressive educational steps in Arkansas up to the return of the Conservatives to power in 1874. He says:

> The principal steps in school legislation in Arkansas may be thus summarized: (1) The ante bellum law fixed the districts to a large extent. (2) The law of 1866–67 fixed the system upon a taxed basis, and reached white children. (3) The law of 1868–69 continued the taxed system, and extended the privileges of the schools to all races. (4) The law of 1874–75, and all subsequent legislation, developed and perfected the work of the three systems, and added new features.

The constitution of 1874 has the following sections on education:

ARTICLE XIV.

SECTION 1. Intelligence and virtue being the safeguards of liberty and the bulwark of a free and good government, the State shall ever maintain a general, suitable, and efficient system of free schools whereby all persons in the State, between the ages of 6 and 21 years, may receive gratuitous instruction.

SEC. 2. No money or property belonging to the public school fund, or to this State for the benefit of schools or universities, shall ever be used for any other than for the respective purposes to which it belongs.

SEC. 3. The general assembly shall provide by general laws for the support of common schools by taxes, which shall never exceed in any one year 2 mills on the dollar on the taxable property of the State, and by an annual per capita tax of $1, to be assessed on every male inhabitant of this State over the age of 21 years: *Provided*, The general assembly may by general law authorize school districts to levy by a vote of the qualified electors of such district a tax not to exceed 5 mills on the dollar in any one year for school purposes: *Provided further*, That no such tax shall be appropriated to any other purpose nor to any other district than that for which it was levied.

SEC. 4. The supervision of public schools and the execution of the laws regulating the same shall be vested in and confided to such officers as may be provided for by the general assembly.

By the constitution the following features were fixed in the organic act:

1. A mandate to educate all the children of the State.
2. The inviolability of the school funds; which were defined and separated by law into the (1) Common or permanent school fund; (2) the sixteenth-section fund.
3. Uniform State taxes for schools, with an annual poll tax.
4. Provision for local taxation on demand by the voters and the inviolability of the tax so levied.
5. Making the office of State superintendent depend on the will of the legislature instead of fixing it in the organic law as was done by the constitution of 1868.

Little seems to have been done in an educational way from the date of Corbin's last report, March 5, 1874, till after the passage of the new school law on December 7, 1875, under which the Conservatives began their work. The two school years 1873–74 and 1874–75 are almost a total blank. There was no head of the school system during a part of this time, for the officers of the old régime had gone out with the passing of the constitution of 1868. There was no formal report for the period; so that all extant knowledge of conditions at this time has come through other sources. About all that is known is that there was paid out for teachers in 1873–74 the sum of $65,522.66, and for the year 1874–75 the sum of $40,444.56.

It seemed best to those in power to let the old system practically die and then build anew on the basis of home rule, honest money, conservatism in expenditures, and honesty in administration. No school law was passed by the first assembly under the new constitution. Perhaps sufficient time had not elapsed for the conservative element to orient itself to the new conditions of life, so unlike the patriarchal ways of the ante bellum period.

The law of December 7, 1875, repealed and to a large extent reenacted the law of April 23, 1873. It differentiated and fixed the status of the two school funds: (1) The permanent or common school fund was made up of all moneys, stocks, bonds, and other property then belonging to any fund for the purposes of education, escheats, estrays, unclaimed dividends, or distributive shares of deceased persons, grants, gifts, devises, 10 per cent of the net proceeds of the sales of State lands, and proceeds from the sale of all other lands except (2) the proceeds from the sixteenth-section lands. These two funds thus differentiated were protected by the constitution from spoliation, and this provision has come down through successive school laws and State digests to the present.

In the school law of December 7, 1875—the basis of subsequent school legislation—the State superintendent was retained, the county superintendent was replaced by a county examiner, and the district trustee by three district directors. The duties of each remained substantially the same. The first and greatest item was revenue. This was provided for in three ways:

(1) By a general tax of 2 mills on the property of the State, to be distributed per capita by the State superintendent to all children between the ages of 6 and 21.

(2) By a poll tax of $1 on each male citizen over 21 years of age, to be distributed by the county judge to the school districts in proportion to the number of polls in each.

(3) By a local tax in each district not exceeding 5 mills on the dollar, to be determined as to amount by the electors of each district each year and to be paid directly to the districts.

Until the promulgation of the constitution of 1874, the history of the public schools in Arkansas is primarily the question of their existence at all. Before the Civil War their existence was recognized mainly in so far as they might be supported out of the income of invested funds. During the reconstruction era they won the basis of support through public taxation, but suffered the handicap of the reconstruction régime. After the incorporation of the public-school system into the constitution of 1874 their maintenance was no longer to be questioned, nor has there been a break in the historical continuity of the office of superintendent. The system has been in the hands of the best element of the people of Arkansas and has been administered by their representatives in the interests of all. Since 1875 its policy has been more or less uniform. There has been no radical change from one school of thought to another. In the main, each superintendent, while emphasizing or developing certain lines which more particularly appealed to him, has in general carried out the policy of his predecessor. There has been no break; there has been historical continuity. It is therefore possible to write the history of the last generation of schools in Arkansas as a continuous whole, considering (1) The difficulties in the way, (2) the things attempted, (3) the things accomplished and the progress attained.

The succession of State superintendents since 1875 has been as follows:

George W. Hill, December 18, 1875, to October 13, 1878.
James L. Denton, October 13, 1878, to October 11, 1882.
Dunbar H. Pope, October 11, 1882, to October 30, 1882.
Woodville E. Thompson, October 30, 1882, to October 30, 1890.
Josiah H. Shinn, October 30, 1890, to October 30, 1894.
Junius Jordan, October 30, 1894, to September 12, 1898.
James W. Kuykendall, September 12, 1898, to October 30, 1898.
J. J. Doyne, October 30, 1898, to October 30, 1902.
John H. Hinemon, October 30, 1902, to October 30, 1906.
J. J. Doyne, October 30, 1906, to July 1, 1908.
George B. Cook, July 1, 1908, to date.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF GEORGE W. HILL, 1875–1878.

The first State superintendent under the new law was George W. Hill. He was appointed December 18, 1875, and in his first report, for the year ending July 1, 1876, he makes a brief but telling résumé of the educational situation of the State at that time. The main burden of this report was the hostility to the school system begotten in reconstruction days and the evils of a depreciated currency, consisting of State and county scrip. He says:

> Called to the office of State superintendent of public instruction in December, 1875, by the general assembly, pursuant to an act approved December 7, 1875, entitled "An act to maintain a system of free common schools for the State of Arkansas," I found the interest of the free education of the youth of the State in not so favorable a condition as might be desired. A very powerful force—the depreciation of the value of State scrip—had been militating against this interest for about two years and temporarily emasculated the whole common-school system. In the wake of a depreciated currency, in which teachers were paid and by which schools were attempted to be maintained, followed numerous attendant evils. The discouragement of school officers, an occasion for complaint on the part of enemies to free schools, a somewhat reckless incurring of debt, a loss of confidence in the minds of the people, and a partial abandonment of free schools by good teachers were all in its multitudinous train. Under the circumstances most school districts had either to suspend their schools or become involved in debt. Some did the former, others the latter.
>
> For this state of evils there was but one remedy—to be rid of that upas, a depreciated currency. Time and the appreciation of treasurer's certificates are accomplishing this desired result. The districts generally are getting out of debt and resuming their schools. Confidence is being restored to the people, and it is earnestly to be desired that the cause of public instruction will in future be kept clear of the breakers of a comparatively valueless money. * * *
>
> During the year past we had but little trouble arising from the maintenance of our schools with State scrip, for it had appreciated till it had obtained a very respectable value and more than usual reliability. But still, it is far from desirable that our schools be maintained by a currency whose value is so easily affected by State legislation.

> To the successful management of the industries of a people, there is necessary, not only a feeling of security of property, but a certainty of return for labor put forth. To secure the latter, labor should be paid for in a currency subject to as little fluctuation as practicable.
>
> Under existing laws some of the funds going toward the maintenance of our free schools are paid in county scrip, which hardly has the same value in any two counties. If we can not have all our school funds in United States currency, we ought, at least, to have them all in State scrip.
>
> The fluctuations of scrip, in addition to the direct evil exerted, affect injuriously the moral support of our free schools in public sentiment, none of which we can afford to lose. We have experienced the great benefits consequent upon the negotiations of the honorable finance board for greenbacks, with which to maintain the State government; and it would be desirable to have all our governmental interests supported by an equally stable currency so soon as practicable.[1]

Besides troubles over the matter of money, the school authorities had to make headway against the unpopularity and inefficient character of the district normal institutes and against the lack of preparation and professional interest on the part of many teachers and school officers. There was trouble in particular over the county examiner. He was the county head of the system. He was expected to hold institutes, examine teachers, grant certificates to teach, visit schools, give advice to teachers, and make reports to the superintendent; yet he was practically unpaid, and it even required a special opinion of the attorney general to secure money for the stamps and paper of his office. As a natural result it was difficult to find suitable men who would accept the position.

The unit of administration was the school district, and not the civil township. This was considered and proved to be too small for successful administration. Three local directors in place of one, while making the system unwieldy, was still thought to be an improvement, but it was found that not many electors would attend the annual school-district meetings, thus leaving the whole question of school management and school taxes in the hands of the designing few.

The whole question of the school lands had been properly transferred to the office of the commissioner of State lands; but the section of the act in regard to local taxation was vague and was held by the attorney general to make the whole of the district or local tax optional, while—

> the statistics presented are very meager. Comparatively few free schools were taught during the year ending July 1, 1876; and the statistics collected do not present the educational interest of the State as good as it really is. Many trustees failed to report; others were not accurate. This fact, of course, vitiates the reports of the county examiner and State superintendent.

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[1] Hill's Report for 1875–76, pp. 5–10.

The statistics for the year, so far as it was possible for Supt. Hill to gather them, were as follows:

STATISTICS FOR YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1876.

School population:	
White	106,352
Colored	27,574
Total (not differentiated in many counties)	189,130
School attendance (many counties not reported)	15,890
Teachers, total reported	461
Salaries:	
Male	$28,783.01
Female	$4,652.20
Total (not differentiated in many counties)	$75,399.67
Schoolhouses:	
Erected during year	25
Cost	$3,957.12
Erected before	1,374
Cost (not value)	$361,358.37
Revenue:	
State apportionment	$105,586.70
District (i. e., local) tax	87,739.51
Sale of schoolhouses, sites, etc	444.64
Grants and gifts	674.99
	194,445.84
Expenditures:	
Teachers' wages	73,166.67
Schoolhouses, etc	10,838.61
Repairs	2,567.07
Total	119,403.20
Unexpended	10,576.56

Notwithstanding this poor showing the superintendent was not discouraged. He said, in conclusion:

> "There is light ahead" for our common-school system. This is no groundless assertion. It is based upon assurances from all parts of the State of growing intelligence, of an increasing spirit of inquiry, of awakening appreciation of education, of lessening hostility to free schools, of the waning indifference of the people to the efforts of the State in behalf of education, of an enlarging number of friends and advocates of common schools, of a more earnest call for teachers of higher qualifications, of more agitation of the public mind on the free-school question, of a greater disposition on the part of the State press to speak in advocacy of common schools, and of better county and district officers being elected. It is based upon the established confidence in the Government, upon the peace and quiet prevailing in the State, upon the greater degree of industry and enterprise now apparent within our borders, upon the increase of our population through intelligent immigration, upon increased facilities of communication with other States, upon the gradual diffusion at home and abroad of a knowledge of our natural advantages, upon the influence of the example of other States, and upon the spirit of the age.[1]

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[1] Hill's report for 1875-76, p. 20.

In the years 1876–77 and 1877–78 treasurer's warrants and State and county scrip were still an ever-present but decreasing source of trouble to the school authorities. As the State administration got more firmly fixed this extraordinary currency tended to rise to par, and with its rise the question of its use disappeared. By 1885 it was worth its face value.

Other difficulties were the ignorance of both teachers and patrons; the school sessions were short, schools were small, the attendance was small and irregular, even when reckoned on the slight per cent of enrollment; there was still at that time some lack of harmony between the public and the private schools; and, finally, many were saying that the law had too much of the *may* and too little of the *shall*. To this last criticism the superintendent replies:[1]

> The cry is, let all the school tax, or at least a larger proportion of it, be levied and collected by the State. Take our educational matters out of the hands of the districts. Make a strong law. Put more of the *shall* element and less of the *may* in it. The effect of such a course would be beneficial at first, but ultimately might be injurious. In the incipiency of a free-school system, while it is unappreciated, while the people care nothing about it, there is certainly more necessity for centralizing the force and authority pertaining to it than when it has been thoroughly established and has grown up in the affections of the people. But there is a limit beyond which, if centralization be carried, the public sentiment, the molder of the destinies of republican governments, will rebel so strongly as to defeat the object in view. The problem of wise legislation is to ascertain the golden mean between too much and too little centralization.

Even at that time there was complaint that the constitutional limit of 5 mills for the local tax district was too small to secure the best results, but not for years was any serious effort to be made to raise the limit. There was encouragement in the fact that while the local district tax was optional and was to be voted every year, a steadily increasing number of districts saw its importance.

There was a growing demand for better teachers, with the result that teachers' institutes were better attended, normal schools were organized, and the better classes of the population came more and more to depend on the public instead of the private schools. The State Teachers' Association was growing in strength, professional class consciousness began to appear, and with it more of cooperation.

The State superintendent gave much of his time to traveling throughout the State in interest of the schools. This personal work consisted of public addresses, private discussions, the holding of teachers' institutes, and writing for newspapers on educational subjects.

The State reports are to a large extent exponents of the educational situation. The tone and trend of the time can be realized easily.

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[1] Report for 1877–78, pp. 19, 20.

In the earlier ones there is much of rhetoric and rhapsody, containing, nevertheless, words of exhortation, of suggestion, of ambitious desires, of ideals and hopes yet unattained. By degrees these characteristics pass, and their place is taken by longer and longer statements of work actually accomplished and of growing plans for future progress.

Mr. Hill summarizes the general situation at the close of his administration in the following cheerful words:[1]

> It is gratifying in presenting this, my third annual report, to record marked educational progress. There are many evidences of this progress, some of which, in addition to the statistics which accompany this report, I give in detail:
>
> 1. There has been quite an increase in the number of districts which have voted the 5-mill tax.
>
> 2. There is a more general demand for better teachers.
>
> 3. There is a disposition to agitate, to say the least, the matter of popular education. Our people are talking about, writing about, thinking about the subject. It is discoursed upon by our political leaders and speakers. It is discussed by our conventions called together to consider measures for the public good. It is exposed to public view in our newspapers. It is a frequent topic of conversation around the hearthstone. This thought, this intellectual gestation of our educational interest, is what we desire. The result of the parturition can not be other than wholesome. Education by the State has nothing to lose, but much to gain, from investigation. Let thought and research, then, bring their brightest torches to its examination.
>
> 4. More interest has been shown in the annual district school meetings. There has been a larger attendance of the electors at these meetings. A smaller number of districts have failed to hold these meetings and do the annual work of the districts. A closer conformity to law has marked the conduct of these annual meetings. Electors have been more interested in the character of their district officers.
>
> 5. Electors in school districts, beginning to realize that "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," and also the price of a wise management of the educational interests of their district, have been more watchful in regard to the acts of their educational officers. Neglect of official duty has had less chance to sleep undisturbed. Unwise expenditures of school funds have been less frequent.
>
> 6. In addition to the greater faithfulness of educational officers secured by the watchful eye of public sentiment there has been increased efficiency in office, from the fact that educational officers have perceived more clearly the responsibilities of their position. They have felt more sensibly the weight of the obligations resting upon them. To this clearer perception of their responsibilities they have been helped by the activity of public thought in regard to education, their own minds being infected with the excitement which has seized upon the minds of others.
>
> 7. The reports from directors and county examiners have been not only fuller, but more promptly made. Some few reports from county examiners were received even before the time prescribed by law. These facts evince a healthful condition of affairs and augur better things for the future.
>
> 8. More reliance is placed upon our free schools for the education of the youth of the State. There has not been so much need of subscription schools as heretofore. Our free schools are more generally patronized by the so-called "better class" of citizens. Prejudice on the ground that the free school is socially too democratic, that it occasions too promiscuous a mixture of the various classes of society is waning. Our free schools are being recognized as the peers in efficiency of private schools, maintained by an equal expenditure of means. Indeed, in many cases—as in Little Rock, Pine Bluff, Helena, and other places—they are greatly superior.

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[1] Report for 1877-78, pp. 5-7.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF JAMES L. DENTON AND DUNBAR H. POPE, 1878–1882.

The successor of Mr. Hill was James L. Denton. Of him one of his successors in the office of State superintendent, Prof. Josiah H. Shinn, has said:

> Mr. Denton believed in the efficacy of public education. He was a master of platform oratory, traveled over much of the State, and was always greeted with large audiences. His influence over the people was very great, and he used it for the advancement of the public schools. The people no longer looked to the general tax for means to carry on their schools, but voted the local tax as an auxiliary. Opposition to free schools grew weaker, and more systematic efforts were adopted by the people.

His immediate successor, Hon. W. E. Thompson, said of him:

> By his eloquent and impassioned appeals he removed in a great measure southern prejudice against free schools, and to him more than any other individual is the State of Arkansas indebted for the increased popularity of our free schools.

During this period city school systems began to be organized in the larger towns and the superintendent takes up the problem of the ungraded schools. Until now this problem had hardly been touched in the more thickly populated centers, much less in the country districts. An outline course of study sent out by Gen. John Eaton, then United States Commissioner of Education, was printed with directions and suggestions, and the question of textbooks, with the accompanying question whether there should be a State or county or other adoption, was discussed. In August, 1880, the superintendent recommended a uniform series of textbooks, which was gradually adopted by the local school boards. It included Swinton's Word Primer, Word Book, and Word Analysis, in spelling; Appleton's readers; Webster's dictionaries; Goodman's Patent Model Copy-Books; Quackenbos's History of the United States; Swinton's General History; Quackenbos's Illustrated Lessons in our Language, and his English Grammar; Hart's English Literature; Cornell's Geography; Ray's Arithmetic and Algebra; Schuyler's Geometry; Harkness's Latin Series; Hart's Rhetoric; Schuyler's Logic; Bryant and Stratton's Bookkeeping; Townsend's Civil Government; Chapin's Political Economy; Wells's Natural Philosophy; Steele's Botany, Physiology, Chemistry, Astronomy, and Geology. As aids to the teacher in professional self-development he recommended Jewell's School Government; Ogden's Science of Education and his Art of Teaching; Heilman's History of Pedagogy; Northend's Teacher and Parent, and his Teacher's Assistant; Wickersham's School Economy; Page's Theory and Practice of Teaching; Swinton's Rambles among Words. Trench's Study of Words; R. G. White's Words and their Uses.

The work of the county examiners was not satisfactory, nor could it be under the situation of affairs, and there was great diversity of opinion on the question of local tax. Some districts were willing to vote more than the constitutional limit of 5 mills. But experiences like those of Perryville had made others so wary that they refused to vote any special tax whatsoever, for in reconstruction times Perryville had a school for 10 months which cost so much money that it took the district 8 years to pay out. Perhaps the most striking features in the situation were the growing confidence of the people in the honesty of the public officers, and the realization of these officers of administration that the system still suffered from grave weaknesses.

Soon there began to appear reports of better schoolhouses and longer terms, of better teachers and better attendance, of disappearing apathy and opposition, of more special-tax districts, and of "rapid and substantial progress."

In a review of the work accomplished to that date Supt. Denton writes, in the report for 1878–1880 (pp. 70–71), in a style, florid and rhetorical, it is true, but one filled with the pathos of high ideals:

> In considering this question it should never be forgotten that the fabric of public schools was founded on the ashes and ruins of that melancholy period. * * * Bankruptcy, repugnance to the system, * * * reckless mismanagement of school affairs, * * * the asperities naturally engendered by a great revolution, the political commotion and dreadful friction that attended reconstruction, together with the dubious future of the country, environed the infant cause. * * * The war broke the South financially, but it also broke the torpor of the public mind in regard to the supreme question of universal education. * * * It underscored and emphasized the transcendent importance and overshadowing supremacy of the kingdom of ideas. * * * In spite of every adverse influence, however, there has been steady progress during the last 12 years. In spite of crushing disappointments, exorbitant taxation, and scarcity of revenues, the wheels of progress have quickened their revolutions. Resistance has ceased to be dangerous. The people have accepted accomplished facts. The tone of leading newspapers and orators is positive and encouraging. Public apathy is retreating before clearer light and broader views, and popular education is receiving a more enthusiastic support. The condition of the country is favorable.

During the period of Mr. Denton's superintendency the progress of schools was encouraged and helped by the publication of the Arkansas School Journal, which was first issued at Little Rock in November, 1880, by J. R. Withers, a teacher who had come into Arkansas from Indiana. After his return home the editorial management was assumed by Mr. Denton himself and remained in his hands till his death. With the passing of his enthusiastic support its direction was assumed by J. Kellogg, who changed its name to Kellogg's Eclectic Monthly and Educational Journal, making it more general in scope and character of contents, but after an experience of seven months in its new rôle it was suspended, and the educational system was again left without a journalistic leader.

During the period of its existence, covering the time between November, 1880, and July, 1883, the Journal was of no little value in advancing education, but it does not appear that it was well patronized by the teachers as a whole or that its pages were as extensively used by them as was desirable. The Journal did its part; its selections were suggestive, but few teachers availed themselves of the opportunity of its pages, and its preaching was no doubt much better than their practice.

ADMINISTRATION OF WOODVILLE E. THOMPSON, 1882–1890.

Mr. Denton died in office and his unexpired term was filled out by Dunbar H. Pope. The latter was succeeded by Woodville E. Thompson, who served for the eight years between 1882 and 1890.

During his incumbency the main features discussed in the reports are the assistance derived from the Peabody Fund with arguments in favor of national aid to education; the growing importance of the newly organized city school systems; the need of a revision of the existing school law, and a more careful collection of the State poll tax. There were still many complaints of imperfect reports, but the interest in the schools when measured by the amount of money the people were willing to vote for its support was steadily increasing.

The cry now changes from opposition to indifference—a change more deadly in character but yet more easily overcome. The system was recognized on all sides to be too decentralized, and there was pressing need for a more efficient and better paid local administration. But along with these older and narrower difficulties comes a discussion of newer and broader problems like free textbooks, the consolidation of schools, and even compulsory attendance. The great need was always for more efficient and better paid county and local officers. These were often ignorant and frequently careless, and this statement applies not only to the county examiners and district directors, who were practically unpaid, but also to the county treasurers, who failed often to report county school funds, and when not failing were often so careless as to count the principal of the county sixteenth section fund as a part of their annual receipts.

The question of attendance was also a serious one. The people were not ready for a compulsory law, and yet it cost practically as much to educate the average per cent of pupils in attendance as it would have cost to educate the pupils enrolled. It was suggested that one-half the school fund be apportioned on the basis of enrollment, the other half on that of attendance. The question of school libraries and of teachers' certificates becomes more important; there is a growing tendency to appeal to the people of Arkansas by the example of other States, and it is remarkably true that the feeling of smug complacency is not often to be seen.

In concluding his report for his last year of service Mr. Thompson says:

> An examination of these reports will show that the public school system is being improved from year to year, but that there is an urgent demand for some radical changes to be made before any very great advancement can be perceptible. After eight years' work for the common schools of the State I am thoroughly satisfied that the changes and amendments herein recommended call for the careful consideration of the general assembly. The collected statistics which have been presented are by no means satisfactory. For instance, the report for 1890 shows an enrollment over 10,000 less than that of 1889. Were this the real case, the correct inference would be that our schools are not doing what we have a right to demand of them; but an examination of the reports from each of our 75 county examiners readily shows the cause of this falling off to be the failure of directors to meet their requirements, and it will never be improved so long as we have so many school directors receiving no compensation for their work. Far better have town supervision and a salaried agent or agents to control the county schools. The reports of the wages paid teachers, number of teachers, number of schoolhouses, etc., give no idea of the true financial condition of our counties; on the contrary, they tend to mislead the public. The amounts of revenue collected and expended are the only correct data we have been able to command from the reports and statements which go to represent what we are doing for the cause of popular education.

ADMINISTRATION OF JOSIAH H. SHINN, 1890–1894.

To the mind of the present writer, Prof. Shinn is the real protagonist of primary education in Arkansas, the real educational statesman who was the first to see that the State had reached the limits of development with the means at command and in his official capacity to declare for a higher tax rate. Mr. Shinn had been a lifelong teacher. He believed that the public schools not only had a mission, but that their totality of work was of greater value to mankind than was that of the higher institutions. He argued that inasmuch as 96 per cent of all the children of the State would receive all their school education in the public primary and high schools these schools should be made better.

To do this he set about to inspire a love for better teaching. Institutes were held more frequently and for longer terms. Regular programs were prepared and expert teachers employed. To the legislature he said:

> The school population is 36 per cent of the entire population in 1890. If this school population be sorted it will quite naturally divide itself into a class pursuing elementary studies, another pursuing higher studies, and still another the collegiate studies. The elementary studies will comprise as a rule all students between the ages of 6 and 15, the high school between 15 and 18, and the collegiate from 18 upward. Of course these lines cross each other in various ways, but the general classification holds good. From most careful estimates it is found that rather more than 96 per cent of the school population are pursuing elementary studies, rather more than 3 per cent are pursuing higher studies, and rather less than 1 per cent are in proper collegiate studies. The percentages for the United States are 94.2 per cent elementary, 4.9 per cent higher, and 0.9 per cent collegiate. Elementary instruction is understood to

include the "primary" and "grammar" grades. Of the whole school population the public schools enrolled about 97 per cent, while the private schools and colleges enrolled less than 3 per cent. In the whole country, according to the report of the United States Commissioner, there were 13,726,574 children of all grades enrolled in 1888-89. Of these, 12,325,411, or 89.8 per cent, were enrolled in schools or institutions under public management, and 1,401,163, or 10.2 per cent, in schools and institutions under private management. The public-school spirit in Arkansas is far above the average for the whole country. In a properly devised scheme of education the elementary course should terminate at the thirteenth year of child life and include about 20 per cent of the school population; the secondary period will terminate at 17 and include about 8 per cent of the population; while the superior will terminate at 21 and include 6 per cent. Applying these estimates to the whole number of enrolled children, there should be 148,240 enrolled in elementary work, 59,296 in secondary work, and 44,472 in superior work. The actual classification will show that there are not far from 240,000 in elementary work, 8,000 in secondary work, and 2,000 in superior work. That is to say, about 100,000 are doing elementary work that in a model system would be engaged elsewhere; there are 50,000 children enrolled in our schools doing elementary work whose ages under a better system would warrant their receiving secondary instruction, and who are debarred from it by the bad classification of the earlier school years, the bad teaching of the same time, the bad regulations as to attendance, and the opposition to secondary instruction in free schools. The case is still worse when we consider the collegiate side of the question. There are 44,000 children from 17 to 21 years of age to receive superior instruction. The most liberal estimate that I can form is that less than 2,500 children of the State are in proper collegiate studies. The rule for the whole country is that six-sevenths of those entitled to secondary instruction never receive it, and that thirty thirty-firsts of those eligible in age for superior instruction never enter college.

While we are keeping step with the whole country we are far behind many of the older communities in strong secondary and superior schools; and our care should be to so manipulate the elementary course as to create better future possibilities for the secondary and superior. This can be done by constantly raising the grade of instruction in the elementary schools. To do this we need better teachers, better classification, county supervision, graded institutes, normal schools, manual training schools, garden schools, kindergarten training.

He then asked the legislature for an appropriation to establish 6 three-months normal schools in addition to the regular county institutes. That body gave him $2,000 per annum in 1891 for two years, and increased it to $3,000 in 1893. With this and other money he not only kept up the three-months district normal schools, but established and maintained 3 State normal schools for one year and 2 for three years, with a regular 3 years' course of study for nine months of each year. The schedules and schemes of study covered a period of three years in orthography, reading, mental and written arithmetic, penmanship, English grammar, geography, history, algebra, geometry, physics, rhetoric, mental philosophy, Latin, Anglo-Saxon, the Constitution of the United States and of the State of Arkansas, civics, natural history, United States land surveys, school mangement, pedagogy, psychology, and history of education. The attendance was more than 300 for the full time, with 33 graduates. The schedules for the three-months schools embraced a comprehensive study of the common branches, with a shorter study of methods. Over 800 teachers attended these schools each year, the number in 1894 reaching 1,423. Teachers who had gained the most success as teachers of high and graded schools throughout the State were chosen as instructors for these short-term schools. The county institute work under the supervision of the county examiners was also greatly stimulated. From 76 in 1891 there were 165 held in 1894, the attendance being at that time 4,254.

The law required the State superintendent to prepare questions for the examination of teachers four times each year, but this had fallen into disuse. From and after 1891, for four years, these uniform examinations were regularly and persistently held. At first considerable opposition was aroused, but it was not long before their influence upon the teaching class became manifest and they are now one of the most approved features of the State's educational system. The real qualifications of teachers were unquestionably advanced. Schedules and schemes for the grading of country and town schools were prepared and urged upon school officers. The result was a wider grading and classification than had before existed.

In order that the high school work should be more thoroughly systematized, and that a certain uniformity and continuity of study should be maintained, Prof. Shinn advised the State Teachers' Association in 1891 to adopt, through its high-school department, a regular course of study. A committee appointed by that association adopted and recommended a scheme of studies to the high schools of the State which was generally adopted as a minimum.

Prof. Shinn also took the position that, since the university asserted itself to be the head of the public school system, this assertion threw upon it the onus of ascertaining and accrediting every high school in the State whose course of study and system of teaching led to collegiate entrance.

The legislature of 1893 authorized the State superintendent to make an exhibit of the State's educational enterprises at the World's Columbian Exposition. Thirty-two schools prepared exhibits of more than 400 bound volumes of pupil work and over 3,000 specimens of map drawing and botanical work. Eight hundred photographs showed exterior and interior views of Arkansas schools. Forty large administrative charts exhibited the legal status of the State's system. Dr. Buisson, delegate from the French ministry of public education, cut at random a hundred pages from the child work of the various schools, to be reproduced in facsimile in a work for French schools. Dr. Yambe, of the University of Japan, at Tokyo, made the plan of this exhibit the basis of his official report. Awards were made to the public schools of Little Rock, Batesville, Arkadelphia, Malvern, Morrillton, Hot Springs, Fort Smith, Pine Bluff, Lonoke, Russellville, Helena, Eureka Springs, and Jonesboro. Awards were also granted to the State.[1]

In summarizing his work at the end of his four years of administration, in 1894, he says:

> Looking backward over the 20 years the system has been in operation, we find much that authorizes our people to rank themselves as leaders in systematic provision, intelligent original legislation, honest expenditure, comprehensive plan, and energetic, thoroughgoing work.
>
> We began the work with a bankrupt State and a disheartened population. Civil war had desolated our homes and depleted our treasury; reconstruction had driven us to madness and swept away the little that war had left. Debt—overpowering, grinding debt—was the chief legacy of the after-war period; the reconstruction era, though clad in peaceful garb, was far more voracious and destructive than had been the armed period of war.
>
> Both State and counties were overwhelmed with debt, and all enterprises felt its deadening influences.
>
> To me it is a remarkable fact that out of this sea of passion, strife, and bad feeling our people were able and willing to formulate the prudent and wise statutes which brought the free school into permanent and vigorous form. And if there can be anything more remarkable than this great mental phenomenon, it is the wonderful recuperative power of our people. In 20 years of honest, capable government we have not only regained all that we had of taxed wealth before the war, but have almost doubled it.

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[1] See Shinn's History of Education in Arkansas, pp. 53-57, from which these paragraphs are condensed.

At the very beginning our legislation upon educational questions was characterized by liberality and wisdom.

A State levy of 2 mills on the dollar was legalized for per capita distribution throughout the State; a poll tax was added for county distribution, while every district was permitted to levy and collect an additional sum,not exceeding 5 mills on the dollar, for home use. Thus our legislators, although disturbed by the great questions of politics then prevalent, seized the three best means adopted by any State for the raising of revenue, wisely giving the greatest freedom of action to the district, in this manner emphasizing the value of home rule, home development, and home taxation.

Through 20 years the system has lived with almost no amendment. From a few schoolhouses scattered here and there, poorly equipped and supplied, we have reached a plane where 6,000 schoolhouses, well equipped, are in existence, and to which 400,000 children go for about all the school instruction they ever receive. The system started in the thraldom of after-war times, but because of its wise and conservative tendencies it grew with suprising rapidity. It was then an experiment, hedged all around by the doubts of both leaders and followers. It has long since passed the experimental state and is now a fixed part of the State's polity. It has won friends everywhere, and is to-day more deeply grounded in the affections of the whole people than any other department of government. It has grown because it met a demand for the widest dissemination of the principles that underlie virtue and foster intelligence in order that citizens may be the better prepared to understand and maintain the rights, duties, and obligations of suffrage government.

The backward look is a real basis for honest pride to every citizen of the State. Every energy has been bent by the majority of the people to force the system to yield a proper fruit. Money has been voted so generally that we have reached the limit of our right. Teachers have been required by inexorable public opinion to improve themselves. The result is, as stated before, we have now reached the maximum worth of public education under our revenue limitations. * * *

All that could be done 20 years ago was done. But conditions have changed. Gloom has given place to glory, despair to hope. If we now are to equal the men then, we must act as vigorously and wisely under more generous conditions as did they under a harsher environment. * * * Technical education in some form has gone into every public school side by side with the old literary forms. Technical education is a common solution for many of the industrial problems of the age. Its value is equal to the literary form, and conforms much more adequately to demands of the mass. If we are to take high rank upon industrial questions, we must conform our public systems to the technical demands of the problem. But under existing revenue limitations we can not adequately meet the world form of literary demands, to say nothing of the technical requirements. The really great question of educational statesmanship is the immediate removal of the limitation upon local taxation. Give the people more freedom in their localities, so that they may the more easily and surely adjust themselves to the demands of their environment. It is no burden to a locality already satisfied with local legislation to permit another locality to use its own means untrammeled and without limitations. Absolute freedom to the district is the perfection of home rule.[1]

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[1] Shinn: Report as Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1893–94, pp. 7–10.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PRESENT ERA, 1894-1912.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF JUNIUS JORDAN AND J. W. KUYKENDALL, 1894–1898

The successor of Prof. Shinn was Junius Jordan. In his first biennial report, that for 1894–95 and 1895–96, he reviews the main features of the school system and points out their defects. He was quick to note improvements and to trace them to their source, but he was not disposed to claim that relative perfection had been attained. He says:

> It is a noteworthy fact that while property values have materially decreased, taxes for the support of schools have been uniformly maintained. This is a marked evidence that our people are alive and progressive in the cause of education * * *.
>
> It is gratifying to note that there is an increased efficiency and power in our teachers, and that by the acquisition of new methods, through the instrumentality of our county normals, the standards of school work and the system of grading have been advanced and improved.
>
> While this condition of affairs is very encouraging, we must not say that we have arrived at a point where we can afford to relax our energies or curtail our expenditures. It is a mistake to suppose that our school system is as effective in all its bearings as in those States that were never estopped in their progressive features by the calamities of war and the disasters of misgovernment and of financial depression. They have better schoolhouses, more thoroughly provided with apparatus, libraries, and devices and aids for teachers and pupils. The rural schools are too generally carried on in inferior buildings, many unworthy of the name or the cause for which they stand * * *.
>
> We must urge on our people to give more earnest attention to the improvement of schoolrooms and school grounds. Especially is this important in the country districts. It is wisdom to build houses first, strongly, comfortably, and with a view to inside equipments.

He reports that the expansion and growth of the system had so increased the duties of the superintendent's office that he was nearly overwhelmed with routine detail and had little time for supervision in the broader sense. This is the burden of both his biennial reports.

It was still felt to be necessary to argue in behalf of the county normal schools, which had been established in 1895. They had given general satisfaction to the teachers; they had helped to create professional consciousness and pride; they had either improved the poor teacher or driven him out of business; they had raised the standard of teaching, for during the first year (1895) as many as 89 per cent of the teachers had been in attendance in the 75 white and 17 negro normal schools. This average was reduced to 87 per cent in 1896, but the general opinion was that the normal schools, taken as a whole, had been much more successful than in the first year. And yet it was found necessary to enter into a long argument in the report to meet the specious pleas of demagogues that normal schools were class legislation. These schools lasted one month, were given in substantially every county, were intended to show how to teach grammar, history, geography, reading, arithmetic, algebra, physiology, spelling, psychology, school management, penmanship, and civil government, while a "special professional course" was outlined for further study. The main argument in behalf of these local, decentralized county normal schools was that they reached the great body of teachers at a minimum cost, a work which State normal schools could not do. The total expense per year was only $10,000.

The same difficulties which earlier officers had faced in general administration and not conquered were again to the front, and reasons for changes were urged. The district directors were pronounced an incumbrance, because they were for the most part ignorant, indifferent, delinquent, or neglectful; the district system was said to be obsolete and inadequate; a new system, based on the civil township, was urged as furnishing better material for directors, a more even distribution of funds and better equalization of opportunity. In the same way and for the same reason—general inefficiency—the county examiner was condemned. It was thought that either his powers and pay should be increased or that his place should be taken by a county superintendent.

It was still felt to be necessary to argue in behalf of the need and importance of the expansion and development of the rural school, but it was possible to report in general a larger enrollment and better attendance. Uniform grading was being attained, but uniform text-books had not commended themselves to the superintendent.

Mr. Jordan's reports, when taken as a whole, may be characterized as of the missionary sort, whose chief function was to arouse to action gather than as a quiet survey of triumphant progress.

ADMINISTRATION OF J. J. DOYNE, 1898–1902.

The next superintendent in the line of succession was J. J. Doyne. After four years of good work the county normal schools were discontinued by the failure of the legislature of 1899 to provide the necessary funds. An attempt was made to cover their work by the Peabody Institutes in 1899 and 1900, but these were not numerous enough, the term was not long enough, and the attendance was not sufficiently distributed to cover the whole field, and inasmuch as the State had failed to do her part the Peabody trustees withdrew their support from the institutes in 1900. At the regular and more formal educational meetings the attendance was poor.

There were, however, signs of progress along certain lines. Special or single school districts were meeting with favor and were producing good results; a permissive law was passed in 1899 allowing county uniformity in textbooks, of which 43 counties availed themselves; the beginnings of school libraries were being laid—extra-legal perhaps, but nevertheless serving a useful purpose—while consolidation and transportation were more boldly discussed. The main features urged were the establishment of normal schools and the creation of the office of county superintendent.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF JOHN H. HINEMON (1902–1906) AND J. J. DOYNE (1906–1908).

The next superintendent was aggressive, progressive, and virile; he was not awed by opposition, did not truckle to popular prejudice, and assumed that the public-school system was a necessity and that its permanence was already assured, an assumption that had not always been evident in former reports. He argued aggressively that the constitutional tax limit should be raised from 2 mills to 5 and that it be extended in the districts from a maximum of 5 mills to 10, for "the highest rate now allowed by law is eagerly voted by the electors each year, but the result is wholly inadequate."

The people of Arkansas, whatever shortcomings they may show, have been thoroughly honest with themselves; they have never tried to deceive themselves; they are not in the habit of claiming that their system is better than it is or that it is better than that of other States; they have boldly and honestly sought to know the true situation, regardless of their relative rank; they have never comforted themselves with the flattering unction that their system was already the best that could be devised and therefore needed no improvement. On the other hand, their educational leaders have called things by their true names; they have recognized their shortcomings, their blunders, their failures, their injustice to themselves, and with steadiness of purpose—sometimes exceedingly slow, it is true, but none the less sure—they have sought to amend the errors of earlier days and to lay broad and deep the foundations of a school system that shall grow and develop with the increasing strength and power of the State.

In the opening of his report Mr. Hinemon reviews the situation: In the biennial period from 1902 to 1904 the school population had increased by 22,065; the school property had increased in value by $454,080; the amount paid to teachers had increased by $167,997, and the average amount expended per child had increased from $3.82 to $4.33. But to the aggressive leaders of the State the situation was not satisfactory. Hon. W. H. Arnold, president of the Texarkana School Board, reviews the situation in a public address, which is reproduced in the superintendent's report. Mr. Arnold says in part:

> Arkansas must reclaim itself from the stigma upon its good name, and follow the lead of those who have turned on the light. We have tried the cheap, untrained teacher and have placed our State at the foot of the class of States. In the cause of education we stand at the bottom, or dangerously near, no matter how the States are grouped or classified in respect to the length of school terms, the amount expended per pupil, average daily attendance, in salaries paid, and in providing the means of training teachers. * * *
>
> It is most singular that the subject of education is not receiving from public officials of the State and candidates for office that consideration its importance demands. On the other hand, it seems to have been a favorite diversion to boast of our free school system, to advise the masses that we are in the lead, that the public fund for school purposes now being collected is ample, and that anyone who would advise to the contrary is a public enemy. Such boasts can be actuated only by the purest demagogy or ignorance. The facts are to the contrary. We have nothing to boast of, but the opportunity for the greatest development and educational prosperity is with us. * * *
>
> It is a mistake to believe that the people are afraid of sufficient taxation to build up our common schools, and those who invest their capital want to place it among enlightened people and are willing to attribute [sic] their part of the burden. They realize that their investment will then be safe and fairly treated by the courts of the country, and the legislative and executive departments. Those who get the greatest benefit from school taxes pay the least taxes.
>
> We need more money. We must not depend upon philanthropists to educate us. Millions are being donated year by year by those who have it to give away, but nothing is given to the indigent or slothful. We really do not need help, except from our own people, who are prosperous and amply able to give it. Let the facts be known and the honest, industrious people of this State will revolutionize our school system, and it is astonishing how few know our educational poverty. The greatest trouble has been the want of publicity. * * *
>
> The western division of States are our strong competitors for first-class new settlers. The average salaries paid to teachers in those States is $59.80 per month; in Arkansas. $34.46. The average money spent per pupil is $31.59 in those States; in Arkansas, $7.41. The average number of days taught in those States, 143.9 days; in Arkansas, 91.5 days. * * *
>
> The fact that the bar association of Arkansas, in discussing the lethargy of State development, attributed our backwardness to the inefficiency of our free school system, deserves unusual notice. If the system is inefficient, the whole State should be alarmed, because we rely almost exclusively upon our free schools to form the character of our children and fit them for the duties of life.
>
> Our special school districts have been able to secure the passage of laws of great benefit, which are not enjoyed in other parts of the State. Why have those advantages been denied to the balance of the State, where the great majority of the school-population is to be found? [1]

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[1] According to the Report of the State Superintendent for 1905-6 there were then special school districts as follows:

Number named	161
Number that made no report	43
Number reporting	118
Number of buildings	245
Value of buildings	$1,912.300
Value of furniture, etc	$144.965
Number of white teachers	906
Number of colored teachers	221
Number of white pupils enrolled	47,746
Number of colored pupils enrolled	14,957

> It is not from design, but because no well-formulated plan has been presented with the necessary persistence to the legislature, or the people are not informed on public-school conditions. When one proposes a reform, he ought to lead the way. * * *
>
> To secure an efficient school system we must have additional educated and trained teachers, longer school terms, better schoolhouses and apparatus, and get rid of the cheap teacher, but this requires more money. * * *
>
> The highest rate now allowed by law is eagerly voted by the electors each year, but the result is wholly inadequate.
>
> Should we not aspire at least to the average of other States? We must more than double our revenue to reach the average as to salaries paid, length of school term, and funds paid out per capita for each child attending school.

This address indicates that the people of the State were now coming to realize more clearly the school situation and to discuss its problems.

A State course of study was adopted by the legislature of 1903 and tended to unify teaching; the law for examining and licensing teaching was improved; institutes took the place of the earlier normal schools as far as possible, and the scope of their courses was broadening; the study of elementary agriculture was being discussed; the school term had increased from about 3 to a little more than 4 months. The State Teachers' Association said their needs were: County supervision, county and State normal schools, and more money to be obtained through a better assessment law.

During this administration the Louisiana Purchase Exposition was held at St. Louis, where a creditable exhibit of the educational work of Arkansas was made.

In 1904 a committee of 10 was appointed by the Arkansas Teachers' Association to consider the condition of the rural schools. In December, 1905, they made a sensible and virile report, in which it was pointed out that the main defects of the schools came through (1) a lack of revenue, which produced marked differences in the length of the school term; (2) a lack of efficiency through a useless multiplication of school districts. It recommended (1) a larger taxing unit, as the township instead of the school district; (2) a renewal or extension of the constitutional limit on the right of taxation; (3) consolidation and transportation.

In the report for 1905–6 the superintendent shows that there was in general a steady growth. During the two years covered there had been built 602 new schoolhouses, at a cost of $766,683.39, while the amount paid for teachers' salaries had increased $185,225.89, and the average expenditure per child had gone from $4.33 to $4.93. The decrease in length of school term from 93 to 81 days was due to the large sums spent in building and showed "the utter inadequacy of the present revenue."

Persistent discussion of the revenue problem at last brought reward. By a resolution of March 2, 1905, the assembly submitted a constitutional amendment to the people on the question of modifying the limitation on the voting of school taxes. The vote was taken in September, 1906, and resulted in 92,969 for amendment, with 47,368 against it. In 9 counties only was there a majority against the amendment; in some the majority in its favor was as 8 to 1.

In accord with the terms of this amendment the act of April 17, 1907, raised the limit of taxation for the State from 2 to 3 mills and for the districts from 5 to 7 mills.

Viewed chronologically the development of the taxing clause has been as follows:

1867. The law levied a 2-mill tax on whites.

1868. The constitution fixed no limit of taxation and included both races.

1874. The constitution fixed a limit of 2 mills for general taxation and 5 mills in the districts.

1907. The constitutional amendment raised these limits to 3 and 7 mills, respectively.

By act of May 14, 1907, the legislature made an initial appropriation of $15,000 as a beginning of the much-hoped-for and long-delayed normal school. Its location was fixed at Conway, in Faulkner County. Building was begun. J. J. Doyne, sometime State superintendent, was elected president, and the first session opened September 21, 1908. The enrollment for the first term was 105. A faculty of eight was chosen, the foundations of a library laid, and a course covering four years outlined, in which pedagogy and practical instruction in agriculture were more particularly emphasized. The school received an offer of $10,000 from the Peabody fund to assist in the organization of an agricultural high school. This was accepted by the legislature of 1909, and the fund was applied to the establishment of a model farm.

Another triumph won in the legislature of 1907 had been urged for years by the State superintendent and teachers. This was the law providing for a county superintendent. This office, although it existed before the Civil War, had fallen into disrepute during reconstruction days and was counted an unnecessary expense, and the county examiner was substituted. The provisions for this office were never satisfactory to the teachers. Important duties were assigned to the office by law, and all county examiners had to pass a preliminary test before appointment; but from "the papers of some appointees it may be readily concluded that the judges have not exercised prudence in naming persons for this office." The act of May 27, 1907, abolished the position of county examiner and created that of county superintendent in its place. The office is elective, and each county decides for itself for or against county supervision. No person is eligible who has not taught for at least 24 months in the county within the last 5 years and who does not hold a first-grade certificate or similar license. His duties are to hold quarterly examinations of teachers, grant licenses, keep accounts with the districts, and record all contracts, furnish plans for new houses, keep records of sums voted for school purposes, approve warrants, receive reports, prepare courses of study, hold county and district institutes and a normal institute in April, May, and June, and make annual reports on the condition of schools. He must keep an office at the county seat and devote all of his time to school work. His salary ranges from $600 to $1,200, and is paid out of the county common school fund.

ADMINISTRATION OF GEORGE B. COOK, 1908 TO DATE.

Entering upon the work of numerous zealous and devoted predecessors, Mr. Cook found the condition of the public schools in Arkansas rapidly improving. He had the boldness to show the people, by means of graphic representation, where their State stood in comparison with others. Basing his graphs on the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1906–7, he showed that Arkansas ranked as follows:

	Rank.
In school population	24
In the valuation of all property	31
In length of the school year	47
In amount raised per school capita	42
In number of teachers	23
In teachers' average monthly wages	23
In number of white, adult, native, male literates	38
In amount of school property	36
In school expenditures	29

He then presented statistics to show the progress of the year 1908 over 1907, which were extremely encouraging:

School statistics, 1907–8.

	1907	1908
School enumeration (6–21)	533,556	544,519
Amount of State apportionment	$677,707.00	$1,018,260.53
Per capita apportionment	$1.27	$1.87
Total school expenditure, State and local, per capita for school population	$4.52	$4.64
Enrollment	340,182	366,054
Average daily attendance	220,621	232,670
New buildings	267	307
Cost	$448,100.00	$754,716.00
Total value buildings and sites	$3,565,813.32	$4,171,462.72
Total value of equipment	$472,814.00	$685,394.00

There was a change going on also, both in the character of the information imparted in the schools and the purposes for which that information was secured. Says the superintendent:

> No longer are the public schools looked upon as merely the supply houses for stored book knowledge, *but these schools are expected to train the youth for citizenship and life work.*

At last the schools were beginning to make good; they were beginning to justify their right to exist; they were training for citizenship and life; and the people, who are quick to realize such things, were coming more fully and more cheerfully to their support.

This reflex was quickly shown in the available resources of the schools for 1909, which Mr. Cook reports as follows:

Summary of school statistics of Arkansas, 1909.

Assessed valuation of all property		$327,023,552
Real estate	$218,424,886	
Personal property	108,598,666	
Revenues for support of public schools, 1909		$4,363,830.37
Balance from 1908, to district accounts	$1,122,425.60	
State apportionment, 1909	1,014,591.76	
Local taxation and other sources	2,226,813.01	
Expenditures for support of public schools for year ending June 30, 1909		$3,110,164.60
Balance on hand June 30, 1909		1,253,665.77
Appropriations by general assembly for biennial term 1909–10:		
University of Arkansas		$220,915
Agricultural Experiment Station		39,400
State Normal School		95,900
Blind School		62,040
Deaf-Mute School		130,146
Reform School		26,505
Branch Normal (colored)		11,600
Four agricultural schools		160,000

Sources of school revenues:

State—Three-mill tax. Interest on permanent school fund. Sale of sixteenth sections. Fines.

Local—Seven-mill tax. Poll tax and penalties.

Permanent school fund (3 per cent State bonds)	$1,134,500.00
Total value of school property	$6,067,342.60
Number of school buildings	6,008
Number of school buildings erected during 1909	299
Value of new buildings	$452,167.30
School population (6 to 21)	557,468
Enrollment in the public schools	374,154
Average daily attendance	243,232
Enrollment in private and denominational schools	4,619
Number of schools taught	7,819
Number of days taught	768,228
Average length of term (93.9 in 1908)	98.2 days.
Number of teachers employed	9,164
Number of institutes held	117
Number of teachers attending institutes	8,965
Average monthly salary for teachers	$55.77

The leaven of years of agitation, the devotion of teachers and of enlightened citizens, the efforts of local school officers, the addresses and published articles of State superintendents now began to bear fruit in legislative action. The student of the future may yet pronounce the Arkansas Assembly of 1909 more enlightened and statesmanlike than any of its predecessors. It began consideration of problems of compulsory attendance, agricultural schools, and consolidation.

Two compulsory attendance acts were passed. The first, to be effective in 31 counties, provided that all children between 8 and 16 years of age should attend school "not less than one-half of the entire time" the public school was in session, unless equal instruction was provided elsewhere; children between 16 and 20 were subjected to similar requirements unless "actively and regularly and lawfully engaged in some useful employment or service." Children without sufficient clothing, or mentally or physically incapacitated, or further than 2½ miles from the schoolhouse, or whose labor "is absolutely necessary for the support of the family," or who had completed the seventh grade, might be excused; but if unable to furnish themselves with books, they might be supplied by the school board. Truant officers with necessary authority were to be appointed, and cities of over 10,000 might establish truant schools. No pupil within the prescribed age limits was to be employed, under penalty of fine, during school hours in any business or other enterprise without a certificate that the law had been complied with. Forty-three counties were exempted from this act.

A similar act was made to apply to nine counties, including four exempted from the first law. The second act was essentially the same as the first, except that the limit was 8 to 14 years instead of 8 to 16; children 14 to 16 must be sent to school if not regularly employed, while those from 16 to 20 are not mentioned, and it was required that the eighth grade be finished before exemption rather than the seventh.

Two acts were passed in regard to agriculture which must be of far-reaching significance. One of these required the teaching of elementary agriculture and horticulture in the schools. The other showed that the legislators who made this requirement were not ignorant of the obligations it placed on the teachers, for the sum of $160,000 was provided for the establishment and maintenance of four "public schools," in which there were to be taught agriculture, horticulture, and textile manufacturing.

The beginning of consolidation of rural schools was provided for by an act which allows the patrons of any rural territory to petition the county court for the organization of a special or single school district having all the rights and privileges previously allowed only to schools in incorporated towns and cities.

The assembly of 1911, like that of 1909, was a very progressive body. Supt. Cook says "it will be regarded as the great educational legislature." It passed no less than 13 general, progressive, and constructive educational acts. The more important of these were directed toward consolidation, compulsory attendance, the creation of high schools, and of a State board of education.

The consolidation act provided that any two or more districts might vote on the question, and, if the proposal carry, the consolidated school district was endowed with the powers belonging to the special school district so far as they were applicable. The directors had the right to borrow money, if authorized to do so by special vote, and might provide transportation for pupils when advisable.

An act of April 7, 1911, provided for the election of directors in the special or single school districts organized under the act of 1909, recognized them as rural special school districts, and gave authority to vote to borrow money for building purposes.

A new compulsory attendance law reenacted the law of 1909 with certain modifications, including the omission of the sections regulating the employment of children of school age in business occupations during school hours. Forty-one counties were excepted from the provisions of this act.

The county superintendent's act was so amended as to require him to conduct a five days' institute in June, instead of the longer institute from April to June, and there was a small increase in salary.

Another act provided for the distribution of three-fourths of the money annually received from the Federal Government on account of the forest reserves of the State for the use of the public schools of the respective counties.

Chapter 431 creates a State board of education. It is composed of the State superintendent of public instruction and one member from each congressional district to be appointed by the governor. They were to have the management and investment of the common school fund (permanent school fund); they were to recover by process of law all moneys due the fund; they were also to control the chartering of all educational institutions, regulate them, and, if need be, revoke charters; to grant State license; and have general supervision of the public schools of the State, elementary, graded, and high; but they can not control textbooks. Prof. B. W. Torreyson has been made secretary.

This assembly also took up the question of public high schools. Up to 1911 no particular attention had been given to and no provision made for that part of the school population. At first the high school had not been considered even a part of the public school system; later this idea was outgrown and it was recognized that the directors acting under the original school law of 1869 had power to establish primary or "other schools of a higher grade or grades." But since the law used the term as synonymous with graded schools, its real purpose was obscure and such high schools as were organized owed their existence to local initiative and not to the legal and formal encouragement of the State.

In an address delivered in 1899 Prof. J. H. Reynolds says:

> Perhaps there are a half dozen real high schools in our cities of the first class, while there are quite a number of would-be high schools struggling for existence in our towns. * * * Excellent as are some of these schools, they are few, and the great mass of the people remain untouched by the high school.

It seems that at that time only the special school districts had so much as the legal right to tax themselves for the support of such schools. The result of this neglect was the following showing for high schools in 1910–11:

Number of four-year high schools reporting	31
Number of three-year high schools reporting	48
Number of two-year high schools reporting	31
Total	110
Number employing 4 or more teachers	15
Number employing 3 or more teachers	20
Number employing 2 or more teachers	43
Number employing 1 or more teachers	32
Teachers giving all time to high-school work	174
Teachers giving part time to high-school work	79
Number of weeks in school term in—	
One school	12
Two schools	24
Eleven schools	28
Forty-five schools	32
Fifty-eight schools	36
Two schools	38
Number of pupils enrolled	5,914
Number graduating—	
On 14-unit basis	348
On 12-unit basis	252

These figures include all schools offering three and four years of high-school work, and with one or two exceptions all of those offering two. A few of those offering four years were not provided with teaching force and equipment for more than three years, while a large per cent of those offering three years could not teach effectively over two years of high-school work. Further, about two-thirds of those enrolled in the four-year schools were located in nine of the larger towns, while practically none of the strong schools offering four-year courses got pupils from the rural districts. This meant that the rural districts were practically without high-school advantages.[1]

This state of affairs was one of the first things to attract the attention of the Arkansas education commission. They made a careful study of the situation, gathered the experiences of other States, and published a vigorous bulletin in which they say:

> Arkansas has no sufficient law governing high schools, has never dealt seriously with the problem, and as a result has but few high schools.
>
> The public high school is essential to the life of the public school system. It is democratic; it is the college of the people; it makes for economic efficiency. It multiplies the productive power of the people and prepares its students for a better solution of the most important meat and bread problem. It transforms the community into a center of culture and refinement and raises intellectual and moral standards. It prepares for citizenship and is the key to the solution of the rural school question. It vitalizes the country school by setting before them a high standard of efficiency and by providing for them well-trained teachers. It, with other factors, promises to make country life more attractive and to stop the flow of population to the cities.[2]

The result of this agitation was the law of 1911, which provides for (Act No. 328) a State high-school board, consisting of the superintendent of public instruction, the president of the University of Arkansas, and a city school superintendent or high-school principal, to be chosen by the governor. Its main duty was to classify the high schools and establish a normal department in those having a four-year course; on the organization of a State board of education its authority and duties were to be transferred to the new organization.

All pupils of high-school age and all common-school teachers of any age may take advantage of the high-school courses in their own county without cost. Students from counties without high schools may have these advantages by payment of a small fee, which is to come out of the common-school fund of the district to which they belong.

Under the law no State aid can be given to high schools in towns with over 3,500 population, or with fewer than 25 high-school pupils, and in case of rural schools, 15 pupils. State funds can be used for teachers only and may be granted only where an equal amount is raised by the local district, and no school may receive more than $1,000 per year for high-school development and normal training.

For the high schools $40,000 was appropriated, and for normal training in the high schools, $10,000.

This act became a law May 30, 1911. It is as yet too early to obtain much in the way of significant statistics, but Prof. Torreyson, who has accomplished much in correlating courses and in unifying systems, summarizes, in the Arkansas School Journal for March, 1912, the results at the end of the first session, as follows:

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[1] See report in Arkansas School Journal by Prof. B. W. Torreyson; Bulletin No. 2 of the Arkansas Education Commission, and State Supt. Cook's Report for 1909–10, pp. 14–15.

[2] Arkansas Education Commission: State aid to high schools, Bulletin No. 2.

The last legislature authorized an apportionment of $50,000 a year from the school funds to be applied by the State board of education in aiding high schools, provided the high schools met the requirements of the State board and opened their doors without tuition to all pupils of the respective counties and to all public-school teachers.

Aid has been granted this school year to 11 high schools to establish normal-training departments; to 19 four-year schools, to 26 three-year schools, and to 38 two-year schools; 94 in all. The total enrollment in the State high schools at the close of the first term was 6,325, of whom 1,174 were pupils from outside the districts and 315 are taking the normal-training courses preparatory to becoming teachers.

There are 62 district high schools in addition to the 94 State high schools. The total high-school enrollment for last year was 6,482, whereas the enrollment for this year is more than one-third greater, and there are nearly as many pupils in the State high schools as attended all high schools last year.

In order that the schools might meet the requirements, $30,000 in property has been donated to the schools this school year and $24,070 contributed to the school funds in money by the individuals. Again, the schools have been thus stimulated to expend in laboratory equipment and libraries $12,411.

The tuition of the 1,174 outside pupils who are being given high-school advantages would amount to more than the total portion of the State aid fund which would have come from the common-school districts, thus giving to them without direct cost the advantages of 315 persons professionally prepared for teaching.

State aid has within one term strengthened the entire school system, placed standard high schools in many small communities, brought high-school advantages within the reach of nearly every pupil in the State, caused donations in money and property greater than the total amount of the State aid apportioned, the high-school enrollment has been increased one-third, a fixed standard has thus been established for the first time for the completion of the common-school course, and a decided advance has been made, through the normal departments in the aided high schools, in solving the problem of supplying trained teachers for rural schools.

Statistically expressed, these figures are as follows:

Number of schools giving normal training	11
Number four-year schools	19
Number three-year schools	26
Number two-year schools	38
Total number schools	94
Total enrollment	6,325
Number pupils enrolled from outside districts	1,174
Number normal-training students	315
Amount expended for laboratory equipment (44 schools)	$10,010
Amount expended for library equipment (52 schools)	$2,401
Value of property donated to districts	$30,500
Amount donated for maintenance, etc	$24,070
Total amount expended to meet requirements	$66,981
Total enrollment in all high schools last year	6,482
Enrollment, 50 district high schools out of 62	2,480
Enrollment, State high schools	6,325
Estimated total enrollment	8,811
Estimated increase this year	2,329
Percentage of increase	35.9

The teachers' association has taken up the question of the articulation of the State high schools with the higher institutions, and at their annual meeting in December last recommended:

(a) That the high-school course should include a greater number of subjects than at present, but that the individual pupil should not be required to carry so many studies.

(b) That the quantitative requirement for graduation should be 15 units instead of 16.

(c) That every high-school course should include 3 units in English, 1 unit of social science, including history, and 1 of natural science.

(d) That every high-school course should include two majors of those [three?] units each, one of which should be English, and at least two minors of 2 units each.

(e) The requirement in mathematics and foreign language should not exceed 2 units in mathematics and 2 units of language other than English.

(f) Of the total of 15 units, not less than 11 should consist of English, foreign language, mathematics, social science, including history, natural science, or other work conducted by recitations and home study.

(g) The other 4 units should be left for additional academic work or for work in mechanical arts, household science, commercial work, or such other work as the needs of the student seem to require.

(h) That colleges be urged to adopt these standards for admission of secondary students to college.

(i) The practice of admitting students to college loaded with conditions which they are required to work off while carrying a college course is not approved.

The teachers, recognizing further the principle that the educational efficiency of the State is measured by the average efficiency of the whole teaching force, are doing everything possible to advance and develop the normal and educational training schools, and by analogy applying the same reasoning to the general affairs of life, declare that:

> Without in any way desiring to weaken the old courses of study which have for their purpose the giving of culture to the individual, this association indorses the movement to make both the elementary and high-school courses in our schools more democratic by the introduction of agriculture, manual training, home economics, training in commercial transactions, and the establishment of pupils' savings banks and teaching of current history, in order to prepare pupils to meet existing commercial and industrial conditions and correlate the school with life.[1]

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[1] Proceedings, Arkansas Teachers' Association, 1911, pp. 27–28.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ORGANIZATION OF CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

It is a commonplace of history that the cities during the middle ages, just as they had been in the time of the ancient world, were the centers from which came progress and liberty. While the country districts were besotted with ignorance and were almost helpless to improve themselves, the cities in both the ancient and medieval world were growing rich through trade and commerce. As they grew stronger, became more acquainted, worked out a better organization through their guilds and felt the power that comes from union, they began to make more and greater demands on their overlord. He, seeing their growing wealth and conscious power, was generally ready to compound the service he demanded for money and instead of annual payments was sometimes willing to accept a lump payment and give a promise under oath to lighten their particular burdens in the future. Oftentimes the overlord forgot to keep his promises; frequently he would fulfill them only under the pressure of armed force; but taking one generation with another there was a general leveling up, and, the cities leading, there was progress toward intelligence and liberty.

It was so in the development of public schools in Arkansas. The earliest progress was made in the cities; from these centers of school industry it is permeating the State.

The first city school systems in Arkansas were organized under the act of February 4, 1869. This act provided that any incorporated city or town, and the territory annexed for school purposes, might be organized as a single school district by calling a special election and choosing 6 directors. The duties of these directors were defined. They were to decide the number of primary and higher schools needed; fix the salary of teachers and the number of months the schools were to be taught, which was to be "not less than 3 nor more than 10 months;" estimate the amount of all other expenses and, after deducting what was due the district from the State apportionment and from invested funds, levy a tax to cover the remainder. Mindful of the disordered state of finances at that time, the law wisely provided that "cash or United States currency only" should be received in payment of this school tax. The law was even retroactive to the extent of providing that all districts organizing prior to March 1, 1869, might collect this tax for the school year 1868–69.

Provision was also made for consolidation when the majority of voters of any contiguous territory and the board of directors of the single district should so petition. Like other schools, the single district school was under the general direction of the State and circuit superintendents, and this excellent law, with slight modifications, is the basis of the city school systems of the present time.

LITTLE ROCK SCHOOLS.

The law was passed February 4, 1869; the first system to be organized was that of Little Rock, whose school board was organized on February 17, 1869. Twenty teachers were elected in July, assigned to 10 different buildings, and the schools were opened September 27, 1869.

Says Supt. Rightsell, in the survey given in his report for 1886–87, pages 10–11:

> Your honorable president [Frederick Kramer], who has held this same important position on your board since December 25, 1869, and who was also a member of the first board, can doubtless call to mind the poor accommodations that could at that time be secured for the children of the district. The demand was so great and the supply of suitable places of necessity so scanty that the board was compelled to accept almost any kind of a building. Halls, old dwellings, and vacant rooms over business houses were rented and made as comfortable and convenient as it was possible to make them. It was no little task for the members of the board to provide even these meager school accommodations for the number of children who were asking for admission.

It was thus the schools began. The first printed report is that for the year 1871–72. J. R. Rightsell was superintendent. The school census was 4,959; the number of school sittings, 1,316; the enrollment, 1,650; the whole number of teachers employed was 23, and the average number of pupils per teacher was 56.3. The pressure for more space was met so far as possible by constructing cheap additions to the old buildings. But although seriously handicapped the schools moved on with a fair degree of success, the school warrants being worth as much as 85 cents on the dollar; but January 19, 1874, the State supreme court rendered a decision making State scrip receivable for the special school tax. This decision at one stroke reduced the school revenues to one-third of their former value. Since the school board could no longer maintain the schools for the usual time, the $2,000 which they had received annually from the Peabody fund was temporarily withdrawn; but the board was required to keep the schools open for three months or lose their share of the State apportionment. To pile Ossa on Pelion, while the board was looking these difficulties in the face they lost the first ward building, the finest school building in the State, by fire. It was new and had cost $22,000; and the $5,000 insurance carried proved worthless.

The head of the school board was Frederick Kramer, who had served in that position since Christmas, 1869. The story of the next 12 months is an heroic record. The superintendent was dispensed with, salaries were cut, expenses were curtailed, warrants were sold for 33⅓ cents on the dollar, and the schools were kept open the minimum time required. The same course was pursued in 1875–76, a member of the board giving a part of his time to supervision without pay. By the strictest economy the financial storm was weathered and with the returning stability in political affairs which followed the adoption of the constitution of 1874, and with growing prosperity the warrants of the board and State scrip rose nearer par, the debts were paid, lost ground was recovered, and by 1876–77 the schools were again prepared to move forward. They were now open 9 months, the salaries of teachers were being gradually raised, and the Peabody fund renewed its contribution. The expenses for 1876–77 were $12,067.65 for all purposes.

The schools of Little Rock have been singularly blessed in the continuity of their management. For the first few years they were under the direction of J. R. Rightsell as superintendent. Then came J. M. Fish, who served 1876–1882, and then Mr. Rightsell again took charge and served continuously until July 1, 1905, when he was succeeded by Prof. B. W. Torreyson. It was thus possible to organize the schools in accord with certain well-defined ideas and to follow these lines to their logical conclusion.

From the small beginnings of 1869 and the early seventies we find the schools developing, in 1890–91 to an enrollment of 4,255 pupils in a school population of 8,737; the sittings had increased to 3,564; there were 60 teachers who received salaries aggregating $34,462.28; the total school expenditure for the year, including payments for real estate, was $64,771.24; and the school property was valued at $258,000. The character of the school buildings was steadily improving. In 1893–94 the total seating capacity had increased to 4,725, while school property was worth $321,650. At this time the course of study was revised, extended, and made to fit the new conditions.

In 1896–97 the census was 9,517; the enrollment 5,063; there were 78 teachers, who were paid $47,997.33. The total cost per pupil on the basis of attendance was $15.63 and on enrollment $11.60. The school property had increased in value to $314,756.53. The number of sittings at the command of the school board was now more than equal to the space demanded by pupils in attendance, for within the last 11 years there had been 6 brick buildings erected, with many modern improvements and giving 52 new rooms in all.

The last annual report seen is that for 1905–6. The school enrollment was 5,872. There were 9 buildings for whites, with 64 rooms for the grades, and 4 for negroes, with 23 rooms for the grades. The high schools had now been more clearly differentiated from the grade schools. Normal training, sewing, and cooking had been introduced. The required high-school work, covering four years, is divided into classical, modern languages, arts, engineering, science, and normal training courses. The receipts for the year from all sources were $216,027.53; the disbursements $222,842.42, including $64,742.80 for teachers and $62,549.51 for new buildings, but as the receipts included two loans aggregating $105,952.80, we may assume the normal income to be about $110,000.

FORT SMITH SCHOOLS.

The city of Fort Smith has been particularly fortunate in the matter of its public schools. Under act of Congress of May 13, 1884, it received a gift of the Government reservation there which was to be held in trust for the benefit of the public schools. The reservation contained about 280 acres; it was surveyed and plotted and a part sold at public auction. The funds have been restricted to the purchase of school sites and the erection and maintenance of school buildings. Between 1884 and 1894 there had been received the sum of $333,662.25. In 1908 the schools owned buildings and sites worth about $350,000; real estate mortgages, $75,000, and 250 school lots worth about $200,000. The disposition and care of these funds is safeguarded by the Federal law under which they were donated to the city, but that law undertakes no administration of the schools, which were left entirely under local control. The schools date from a time not long subsequent to the Civil War. They were first under the administration of Miss Emma Wheatley, by whom they were thoroughly graded; then came N. P. Gates as superintendent, and then J. L. Holloway. In 1888–89 they made use of 5 buildings in all, including the high school; the enumeration was 2,727; the enrollment, 1,975, with 2,060 sittings; there were 28 teachers, drawing more than $17,000 in salaries, with school property worth $600,000. In 1889–90 the city found it necessary to levy only a 2-mill local tax. In 1890–91 they report more than $226,000 loaned at 8 per cent, with an income of more than $18,000 from invested funds, and it was estimated that the income on a 3-mill tax would give them 6 additional teachers. There was still some opposition to the high school on the ground that this was not intended by the law, but this opposition seems not to have been serious. The directors triumphantly point out that during the administration of Supt. Holloway, who was then in office, the schools had grown from 26 teachers to 48 teachers, and from 1,500 to over 2,100 pupils. By 1897 a fine new high-school building had been erected. While the census was then 3,969, the enrollment had reached 2,350; there were now 8 school buildings instead of 5; the salaries aggregated $33,519, and the total disbursements $39,243.

Prof. B. W. Torreyson was superintendent from 1902 to 1905. In this time another large ward school of modern type was erected for white children. The number of children enrolled and the number of teachers employed was largely increased. A populous suburb with its school was added to the city system.

In 1910–11 J. W. Kuykendall was superintendent; 10 school buildings were occupied and 104 teachers were employed.

HOT SPRINGS SCHOOLS.

The Hot Springs special school district was created and organized in 1881. During the first six years the schools were without a superintendent except for a single year, but from a badly graded and poorly organized system they had developed by 1887 to a prosperous and efficient condition. They owned property worth $18,500. Five buildings were used, including the high-school, with 18 teachers; the enrollment was 1,136 and the average attendance 809; $10,530 was paid in salaries and of the 5-mill tax, 3 mills went to salaries and 2 mills to the building fund. In 1891–92 the superintendent was George B. Cook, now State superintendent. A new central building, erected at a cost of $15,000, was both handsome and comfortable; the school property was worth $41,800. In 1893 the schools received a diploma for their exhibit at the World's Fair. In 1906–7 Mr. Cook, who was still superintendent, reported 7 school buildings in use, with 54 teachers. In 1905–6 the school census was 5,398 and the enrollment 2,354. This was 972 less than the previous year, for a disastrous fire in February, 1905, had deprived them of 14 schoolrooms and reduced their sittings from 2,531 to 1,823. The school term was 9 months in length.

Extensive public school systems have been organized in other cities and their administration is bringing power to the communities in which they are. The Eureka schools were organized in 1880. Those of Helena go back to 1867. Pine Bluff's go back to 1882 or earlier. In 1896–97 their total expense was $23,655.27, of which $14,753.61 went for salaries. There was an enrollment of 1,893 out of 3,495; the school property was worth $56,000. Van Buren, Fayetteville, and other towns have flourishing systems, and as the advantages of their peculiar organization become more apparent the smaller towns and the rural districts follow suit by organizing themselves into special school districts.[1]

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[1] See a list of the older town and city systems given in Shinn's History of Education in Arkansas, pp. 58–61.

CHAPTER IX.

THE ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE PERMANENT SCHOOL FUND.

The permanent school fund of Arkansas, of which the principal is now something over $1,135,000, invested in Arkansas 3 per cent 30-year funding bonds due in 1929, has had an extended and varied history. It seems desirable to give a brief summary of the fortunes of these funds as illustrative both of the folly and wisdom of the people—folly when we consider how largely the resources of the earlier days were squandered; wisdom when we think of the generous devotion with which the present generation has sought to correct the mistakes and repair the losses of earlier days.

The present permanent school fund is made up of (1) the sixteenth-section fund, (2) the seminary fund, (3) the saline fund, and (4) the permanent school fund in the narrower sense, which in recent years has absorbed the earlier funds and given its name to the whole.

THE SIXTEENTH SECTION FUND.

The oldest of these funds is the sixteenth-section fund, which is even older than the State itself, for it dates from the Ordinance of 1787 and came into Arkansas with the organization of the Territory, March 2, 1819. In Chapter III it has been shown how a large part of these sixteenth-section lands were lost, directly or indirectly, to the school funds; how the land, under the Federal law, was the property of the separate townships and not of the State as a whole; how the townships sold much of their land and took notes in payment, on which, for one cause or another, for reason or without reason, by chicanery, fraud, misfortune, or otherwise, little or nothing was realized; how in the days immediately preceding the Civil War some of the counties had no school funds, while at least 27 had school funds, some being of respectable size. These funds were left in the counties or in the townships and were invested locally and as separate units in each county. Later they were held by the State and invested as a whole, each county being credited with the income in proportion to its share of the principal. Much of these funds was swept away by the Civil War, and by the act of March 1, 1867, the interest January 1, 1862, to January 1, 1866, due to the school funds was remitted to the debtors.

As has been seen, the law of March 21, 1862, had forbidden the further sale of sixteenth-section lands. Little or nothing seems to have been done in the premises till the act of March 22, 1881, which provided that on petition of a majority of the male inhabitants of a township the school lands might be offered for sale. The collector was to have the lands appraised at a fair valuation, advertise and sell by subdivisions at not less than three-fourths of its appraised value, for one-fourth cash and one, two, and three years' time, with the land as its own security. The county treasurer was to loan the township funds and give the township the proper credit.

This law does not seem to have given satisfaction or the public conscience was being quickened, for the general assembly of 1885 appointed a committee "to examine the books of the commissioner of lands * * * to ascertain what has become of the funds arising from the sixteenth-section school lands." The substance of their report to the assembly is given herewith. After reviewing the effects of the act of March 22, 1881, to provide for the sale of sixteenth-section lands, they show that in accord with the terms of that act the "books, maps, surveys, papers, and evidence of debt pertaining to the sixteenth section in the several counties" had been turned over to the county clerks of the several counties and put into the hands of prosecuting attorneys for collection. The committee say:

> The record * * * shows that these notes and claims were turned over to the several prosecuting attorneys in 1875, nearly 10 years ago, and further shows that only one of them * * * has ever made any collections on any of these notes or claims so placed in their hands in 1875, which to your committee is a good and sufficient reason why some other measure should be adopted looking to the collection of these claims. * * *
>
> Suits were instituted on a large number of these claims in the Pulaski chancery court, and many of them disposed of. * * *
>
> From the foregoing it will be seen that according to the record of school claims referred for collection in the office of the commissioner of State lands there are claims and notes due the school fund arising from the sale of the sixteenth section as follows:

In the hands of prosecuting attorneys	$221,621.06
In commissioner's office	51,769.09
Referred to attorney general for collection	121,240.56
Referred for collection, but of which no mention is made of disposition	153,473.91
Amounting in the aggregate to	548,104.62

> These notes and claims bear dates all along from 1846 to 1862, and judging from those that we examined, now in the office of the commissioner of State lands, we think it safe to say that the major part of these obligations are for the loans of the funds arising from the sales of the sixteenth sections, and not for the purchase of said lands. If, as we believe, this be true, the statute of limitation can be pleaded and bar the collection of an amount of money due the school fund that is truly appalling in its magnitude.[1]

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[1] Superintendent's report for 1895-96, pp. 331-333, quoted from House Jour., 1885, pp. 897 et seq.

A bill was thereupon introduced which became the law of 1885, providing that the majority of the inhabitants of any congressional township might petition for the sale of their sixteenth-section lands. The collector was then to divide this land into 40-acre tracts, appraise, advertise, and sell at not less than three-fourths of appraised valuation and at not less than $1.25 per acre at public auction *for cash*. The funds received were to be paid into the State treasury and invested in United States or Arkansas bonds, the interest to be placed to the credit of the respective counties and by them to the townships owning the sections in accordance with the congressional act of donation.

The successive balances as reported by the auditor and treasurer were:

Sixteenth section fund:

Balance on hand October 1, 1886	[1] $71,552.05
Balance on hand October 1, 1888	[2] 194,035.01
Balance on hand October 1, 1890	[3] 285,963.56
Balance on hand October 1, 1892	[4] 359,202.41
Balance on hand October 1, 1894	[5] 410,581.71
Balance on hand October 1, 1896	[6] 460,492.00

By resolution of March 26, 1895, the State asked Congress so to modify the original terms of acceptance of the sixteenth section grant that the interest, instead of being distributed to the townships owning the lands, might be distributed according to school population. This modification was granted by chapter 54, 55th Cong., 2d sess. (Mar. 8, 1898), and in accord with this Federal law under a State act of May 8, 1899, the State auditor transferred the whole to the permanent school fund and so closed the sixteenth section fund. The amount thus transferred was $649,700, made up as follows:

Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1898:		
Cash	$28,157.98	
Six per cent funding bonds	113,000.00	
Six per cent funding bonds coupons	140,328.51	
Six per cent Loughborough bonds	225,000.00	
		$506,486.49

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[1] No balance was brought over under this heading from 1884. The "sixteenth section fund" heading does not appear there. Such of the sixteenth section funds as survived from an earlier period are carried under other heads.

[2] This includes $136,000 in 6 per cent 30-year Loughborough bonds, issue of 1875, received in exchange for 6 per cent funding bonds and coupons in part and $25,000 in 6 per cent funding bonds. This exchange was made under an act of 1887, chap. 146, which authorized the exchange of common-school funds for State bonds, on which the State was to pay interest from the day of sale. Some were bought at a large discount.

[3] This includes $225,000 in Loughborough bonds, issue of 1875.

[4] This includes $225,000 in Loughborough bonds, issue of 1875, and $33,000 in 6 per cent funding bonds.

[5] This includes $225,000 in Loughborough bonds, issue of 1875, and $82,000 in 6 per cent funding bonds.

[6] This includes $225,000 in Loughborough bonds, issue of 1875; the interest was due on $136,000 from July 1, 1887, and on $89,000 from Jan. 1, 1889. The interest on the $82,000 of 6 per cent funding bonds ($48,000, series of 1869; $34,000, series of 1870) was due from July 1, 1872.

Balance on hand Jan. 18, 1899:		
Cash	$30,235.74	
Six per cent funding bonds	115,000.00	
Six per cent funding bonds coupons due	106,350.00	
Loughborough bonds	225,000.00	
		$476,585.74
Received Jan. 19–Oct. 1, 1899:		
Cash	7,641.86	
Six per cent funding bonds	4,000.00	
Six per cent funding bonds coupons due	45,360.00	
Loughborough bonds coupons due	153,990.00	
		210,991.86
Balance on hand Jan. 18, 1899		476,585.74
Received Jan. 19–Oct. 1, 1899		210,991.86
		687,577.60
Miscellaneous expenditures:		
Jan. 19–Oct. 1, 1899, as per treasurer's report		14,400.43
		673,177.17
Cash invested in three-per cent 30-year funding bonds in accord with section 6 of the funding act of May 8, 1899		23,477.17
		649,700.00
Turned over to the permanent school fund on Oct. 1, 1899, in accord with the act of May 8, 1899, and sixteenth section fund closed[1]		649,700.00

Since the date of transfer, all the funds arising from the sale of sixteenth-section lands have been paid into the treasury as a part of "the 'common-school fund' arising from the present 2-mill State levy and subject to the same distribution among the school districts of the State."[2]

The sums thus paid into the common-school fund and distributed annually to the schools as part of that fund since May 8, 1899, as seen from the auditor's report were as follows:

Year ending Oct. 1, 1900	$97,236.70
Year ending Oct. 1, 1902	149,800.34
Year ending Oct. 1, 1904	130,058.81
Year ending Oct. 1, 1906	101,814.30
Year ending Oct. 1, 1908	93,639.68
Year ending Oct. 1, 1910	95,646.05
Year ending Oct. 1, 1912	36,273.88

Acres of sixteenth-section lands sold to Oct. 6, 1904, about 63,793.57

It would seem that the act of the legislature of 1899 in distributing for immediate use all funds arising from the sale of sixteenth-section lands, while in accord with the recent act of Congress, is contrary to the original idea on which these lands were granted to the States.

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[1] See Treasurer's Report, 1899–1900, pp. 30–34. The item of $23,477.17 cash, invested in funding bonds as above was made into a special sinking fund to redeem the valid scrip and treasurer's certificates then outstanding. The funding bonds received in exchange were to become a part of the permanent school fund. See chap. 148, sec. 6, laws of 1899.

[2] Laws of 1899, p. 293–95.

That idea looked to them as the beginning of a permanent school fund, of which only the income was to be used. Indeed, this principle is still recognized by the State, for the Digest of School Laws, published in 1910, thus defines the permanent school fund, which is called officially the common-school fund, as consisting of—

> the proceeds of all lands that have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State, and not otherwise appropriated by the United States or this State; also all moneys, stocks, bonds, lands, and other property now belonging to any fund for purposes of education; also the net proceeds of all sales of lands and other property and effects that may accrue to this State by escheat, or from sales of estrays, or from unclaimed dividends, or distributive shares of the estates of deceased persons; also any proceeds of the sale of public lands which may have been, or may be hereafter, paid over to the State (Congress consenting); also ten per cent of the net proceeds of the sales of all State land, and it shall be the duty of the State treasurer to set aside this ten per cent to the credit of the *common school fund* when he receives the proceeds of this sale from the State land commissioner; also all the grants, gifts, or devises that have been or hereafter may be made to this State, and not otherwise appropriated by the tenure of the grant, gift, or devise, ***shall be securely invested and sacredly preserved as a public-school fund*** that shall be designated as the common-school fund of the State and which shall be the common property of the State, except the proceeds arising from the sale or lease of the sixteenth section * * *.
>
> The principal arising from the sale of the sixteenth section of land shall never be apportioned or used.[1]

THE SEMINARY FUND.

The next oldest of these funds is the seminary fund, which dates from March 2, 1827, when two townships were given to the Territory by Congress "for the support and use of an university." The Territorial governor was given power to sell some of these lands and apply the proceeds to the buildings of the proposed university, but nothing seems to have been done. In 1836 the assembly was given by Congress entire control over the seminary lands. Some of the lands were sold and the proceeds made a part of the capital of the Bank of the State of Arkansas as a privileged fund, not responsible for its debts but to be credited with its earnings. The sums thus received and invested according to the auditor's reports were as follows:

Balance on hand Nov. 1, 1837:	
Cash [2]	$96.30
Notes	2,028.23
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1840:	
Cash [2]	1,215.92
Notes	1,802.73
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1842:	
Cash [2]	2,188.41
Notes	29,269.53

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[1] Sections 7486 and 7488 of Kirby's Digest, reprinted as a part of the Digest of School Laws, 1910.

[2] See note 1, p. 98.

Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1844:	
In State Bank[1]	$2,188.41
Notes	29,269.53
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1846:	
In State Bank[1]	2,188.41
Notes	39,384.23

In 1846 Congress at the request of the assembly gave its consent to the application of the seminary fund to the use of the common schools. A fund was again accumulating, but such parts of this fund as were loaned on notes with personal security were often lost, and much land was lost by the failure of buyers and their securities. Desiring to change the plan of investment the assembly, by act of January 5, 1849, provided for semiannual distributions to the counties on the basis of the school census. The funds thus distributed were to be invested by the respective counties and to remain a perpetual fund.

The receipt and distribution of moneys of the seminary fund under the law of 1849 was as follows (see auditor's and treasurer's reports):

Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1848:		
Specie[2]		$5,392.47
Notes		40,624.54
Received during two years, Oct. 1, 1848, to Oct. 1, 1850, in specie		16,550.72
Distributed (i. e., apportioned) during this period as follows:		
June 30, 1849	$12,418.76	
Dec. 31, 1849	2,866.36	
June 30, 1850	5,707.26	
Total distributed (i. e., apportioned)		20,992.38
Paid over to the counties		7,592.09
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1850		13,400.29
Apportioned:		
Jan. 1, 1851	$3,036.21	
July 1, 1851	4,575.06	
Jan. 1, 1852	3,001.00	
July 1, 1852	2,164.36	
		12,776.63
Total amount apportioned, including balance on hand Oct. 1, 1850		26,176.92
Amount paid over to the counties		17,105.84
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1852		9,071.08
Apportioned:		
Jan. 1, 1853	$1,289.07	
July 1, 1853	3,825.86	
Jan. 1, 1854	4,132.46	
July 1, 1854	2,213.60	
		11,460.99

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[1] These are the sums which were reported under these dates as a part of the capital of the Bank of the State of Arkansas; the last being the results of additions and the 10 per cent dividend declared by the bank seems to represent the total amount lost by the seminary fund in the collapse of the bank. After 1846 it ceased to be carried as an asset of the fund.

[2] Senate Journal, 1848, p. 250, makes this item $6,583.94.

Amount apportioned for two years ending Sept. 30, 1854, including the balance on hand Oct. 1, 1852		$20, 532. 07
Of the above there was paid over to the counties		13, 578. 15
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1854		6, 953. 92
Apportioned:		
Jan. 1, 1855	$1, 847. 56	
July 1, 1855	1, 010. 99	
Jan. 1, 1856	1, 817. 34	
July 1, 1856	1, 298. 30	
		5, 974. 19
Amount apportioned for two years ending Sept. 30, 1856, including the balance on hand Oct. 1, 1854		12, 928. 11
Amount paid over to the counties		9, 948. 82
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1856		2, 979. 29
Apportioned:		
Jan. 1, 1857		
July 1, 1857		
Jan. 1, 1858		
July 1, 1858		
		28, 116. 68
Amount apportioned for two years ending Sept. 30, 1858, including the balance on hand Oct. 1, 1856		31, 095. 97
Amount paid over to the counties		29, 260. 31
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1858		1, 835. 66
Apportioned:		
Jan. 1, 1859	$4, 089. 84	
July 1, 1859	3, 299. 25	
Jan. 1, 1860	3, 294. 00	
July 1, 1860	2, 365. 40	
		13, 048. 49
Amount apportioned for two years ending Sept. 30, 1860, including the balance on hand Oct. 1, 1858		14, 884. 15
Amount paid over to the counties		11, 749. 34
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1860		3, 134. 81

The total amount of seminary funds distributed to the counties may be represented by the following table:

Seminary funds distributed to the counties.[1]

Totals up to—	Apportioned, excluding balances.	Paid over to the counties.	Not drawn by county to which apportioned, up to date.
Oct. 1, 1850	$20, 992. 38	$7, 592. 09	$13, 400. 29
Oct. 1, 1852	33, 769. 01	24, 697. 93	9, 071. 08
Oct. 1, 1854	45, 230. 00	38, 276. 08	6, 953. 92
Oct. 1, 1856	51, 204. 19	48, 224. 90	2, 979. 29
Oct. 1, 1858	79, 320, 87	77, 485. 21	1, 835. 66
Oct. 1, 1860	92, 369. 36	89, 234. 55	3, 134. 81

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[1] For these figures see the reports of the State auditor and State treasurer, 1850–1860.

The auditor reported in 1866 that the principal of notes due for seminary lands in 1861 was about $35,000. By act of March 1, 1867, interest on these notes was remitted between January 1, 1862, and January 1, 1866. It is probable that the greater part of these notes, together with the greater part of the sums distributed to the counties and invested by them locally, were lost as a result of the war.

The act of March 21, 1862, forbade the further sale of school lands till after the war was over. The last distribution of the seminary and saline funds was made January 1, 1861. The State auditor in his report for 1864–1866 says:

> After that date whatever of cash, Confederate money, war bonds, etc., that came into the treasury was withheld from distribution, and most of it was appropriated for general expenditures.

The amount and character of the funds thus received and used by the State belonging to the seminary and saline funds are shown in the appendix to the auditor's report for 1864–1866 (p. 21 et seq.).

The auditor states also (p. 10) that there was "distributed" from this fund during the two years ending September 30, 1862, the sum of $5,040.82; that $1,943 went from the fund to the institution for the blind; that $4,677.95 in specie was transferred to the ordinary revenue account, of which $2,679.23 in specie was transferred during the quarter ending December 31, 1864. There had also been transferred during the quarter ending September 30, 1864: War bonds $504.32; treasury warrants, $79.82; Confederate money, $1,998.72

In the same report (p. 31) the auditor discusses these transfers and says:

> A question arises if the State should be considered as indebted to the swamp-land, internal-improvement, seminary, and saline funds for the amounts, or for what portion of them, which since the 6th of May, 1861, have been transferred from those funds and used for State purposes.

It does not appear that these sums were ever replaced.

Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1866	Nothing.
Balance on hand July 3, 1868	Nothing.
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1870:	
State scrip	$464.30
United States currency	36.61
	500.91
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1872:	
State scrip	$1,962.26
United States currency	36.61
	1.998.87

Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1874:	
State scrip	$704.40
United States currency	[1] 36.61
	741.01
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1876	982.64
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1878	[2] 1,548.84
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1880	[3] Nothing.

This fund disappears after 1880 from the auditor's reports, being transferred to the permanent school fund, which also included the sixteenth section fund till that was reestablished by law of March 31, 1885. The last of the seminary lands were sold in 1905–6.

SALINE FUND.

This fund was created out of the sales of saline lands granted to the State by the United States for educational purposes.

The number of acres thus granted was 46,080, of which 41,879.51 had been located up to 1858.[4]

They were sold on the same terms as the seminary lands and the receipts as reported by the auditor are about as follows:

Balance on hand—	
Nov. 1, 1837	$127.50
Nov. 1, 1838	127.50
Oct. 1, 1840	135.50
Oct. 1, 1842	151.27
Oct. 1, 1842, notes	[5] 475.00
Oct. 1, 1844	151.27
Oct. 1, 1846	151.27

The cash principal of this fund, like the seminary fund, was made a part of the capital of the Bank of the State of Arkansas and was also lost.

By law of January 12, 1853, it was provided that the accruing principal of the saline fund should be distributed to the counties in accord with the school census, just as was done in the case of the seminary lands under the law of 1847.

The distribution was as follows:

Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1854		$1,068.97
Apportioned—		
July 1, 1855	$2,764.25	
Jan. 1, 1856	429.64	
July 1, 1856	649.15	
		3,843.04

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[1] The $36.61 in United States currency was transferred to general revenue account.

[2] There was burned under act of May 28, 1874, scrip belonging to the seminary fund to the sum of $5,780.68.

[3] There was burned, by error, under act of May 28, 1874, in second quarter, 1879, $1,548.84 in scrip.

[4] House Jour., 1858, p. 266.

[5] These notes were given in 1832.

Amount apportioned for two years ending Sept. 30, 1856, including balance on hand Oct. 1, 1854		$3,843.04
Amount actually paid over to the counties		1,727.17
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1856		2,115.87
Apportioned—		
Jan. 1, 1857		
July 1, 1857		
Jan. 1, 1858		
July 1, 1858		
		3,864.75
Amount apportioned for two years ending Sept. 30, 1858, including balance on hand Oct. 1, 1856		5,980.62
Amount actually paid over to the counties		5,717.75
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1858		262.87
Apportioned—		
Jan. 1, 1859	$3,687.28	
July 1, 1859	1,214.02	
Jan. 1, 1860	2,073.91	
July 1, 1860	1,802.89	
		8,778.10
Amount apportioned for two years ending Sept. 30, 1860, including balance on hand Oct. 1, 1858		9,040.97
Amount paid over to the counties		7,167.58
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1860		1,873.39
Distributed (apportioned) during two years ending Sept. 30, 1862		2,159.29

The above sums may be represented as follows:

Saline fund distributed to the counties.[1]

Totals up to —	Apportioned, excluding balances.	Total paid out to the counties.	Not drawn by the county to which apportioned up to date.
Jan. 12, 1853,[2] to Oct. 1, 1854			$1,068.97
Oct. 1, 1856	$3,843.04	$1,727.17	2,115.87
Oct. 1, 1858	7,707.79	7,444.92	262.87
Oct. 1, 1860	16,485.89	14,612.50	1,873.39

[1] For these figures see the reports of the State auditor and State treasurer, 1854–1860.

[2] Date of act authorizing sale.

The auditor in his report for 1864–1866 states that after May 6, 1861, only about 500 acres of the internal improvement and saline lands had been sold, and these mainly to complete contracts already entered on. There was then due, he reports, as principal of notes given in payment for saline lands, about $10,000, on which the interest was remitted between January 1, 1862, and January 1, 1866, by act of March 1, 1867.

There is every reason to believe that practically all of these notes and all of the saline funds invested by the various counties on their own account before the Civil War went down in the general ruin.

Of the saline fund which came into the treasury during that period the auditor reports[1] that for the two years ending September 30, 1862, there was "distributed" $2,159.29 and that there was paid to the institution for the blind out of the same fund, $1,864.50.

He reports further that the total amounts transferred from saline fund during the war to general revenue fund was—for quarter ending December 31, 1864, specie, $545.51; quarter ending September 30, 1864, war bonds, $6, treasury warrants, $4,080.71, Confederate money, $0.91. None of this fund seems to have been replaced.

Balance on hand—

Oct. 1, 1866	Nothing.
Apr. 25, 1867	$46. 14
July 3, 1868	46. 14
Oct. 1, 1870	46. 14
Oct. 1, 1872	1,532. 95
Oct. 1, 1874	[2] 453. 50
Oct. 1, 1876	[3] 1,151. 07
Oct. 1, 1878	1,865. 21
Oct. 1, 1880	[4] 26. 43
Oct. 1, 1882	Nothing.

In the report for 1884 and in subsequent reports the saline fund is included as a part of the permanent school fund.

PERMANENT SCHOOL FUND.

This fund, under the name of Public School Fund (later Common School Fund), was recognized in the Reconstruction Constitution of 1868,[5] which provided that the proceeds of all lands granted to the State by the United States not otherwise appropriated, all moneys, stocks, bonds, lands, and other property then belonging to any fund for education; the net proceeds from escheats, estrays, unclaimed dividends, or distributive shares of estates of deceased persons, fines, penalties, forfeitures, proceeds of the sales of public lands, grants,

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[1] Report 1864–1866, app., p. 10.

[2] There was burned this year under act of May 28, 1874, $5,542.28 in State scrip belonging to this fund.

[3] The sum of $104.30 in United States currency was transferred to general-revenue account.

[4] By error, $1,955.37 in State scrip was burned under act of May 28, 1874.

[5] As early as 1842 we have record in the auditor's books of a "Common School Fund," which was derived from the sale of forfeited lands after deducting State and county taxes and costs of sale in accord with sec. 135 of the revenue law then in force.—Ball & Roane's Revised Statutes, 1837.

Balance on hand—

Oct. 1, 1842	$1,394. 12
Oct. 1, 1844 (specie)	1,515. 84
Oct. 1, 1844 (bank paper)	124. 00

The second of these items is reported as making a part of the capital of the Bank of the State of Arkansas. It was withdrawn from the bank in specie and was expended in 1845 for textbooks (see Auditor's Report, 1846 and ante).

The third item ($124) was carried on the auditor's books for some years and was reported as being in Arkansas bank paper. It is probably the same as the item of $124 reported as transferred from the common-school fund during quarter ending Dec. 31, 1864, to the general-revenue account.

gifts, and devises not otherwise appropriated, etc., should be "securely invested and sacredly preserved as a public school fund."

By the terms of this organic act the public school fund included all that was left after the wreck of war of the sixteenth section fund, the seminary fund, and the saline fund, but a separate account was maintained of the seminary fund, as we have already seen, down to 1880, and in 1885 the sixteenth section fund was again established on a separate basis, to be again absorbed in the permanent school fund under the law of 1899.

Balance of permanent school fund on hand October 1, 1870: Currency, $22,201.37; State scrip, $12,991.12; total, $35,192.49.

It was ordered that this be invested in United States bonds, and in 1872 we find:

Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1872:	
United States 5–20 bonds	$24,186.25
State scrip	56,804.22
United States currency	14,510.84
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1874:	
United States 5 per cent 20-year bonds	38,404.04
State scrip	15,431.45
United States currency	7,496.06
	61,331.55
Balance on hand Oct. 1, 1876:	
United States currency	281.29
State scrip	30,070.92
6 per cent State funding bonds	131,000.00
	161,352.21
Balance on hand—	
Oct. 1, 1878	[1] 190,186.24
Oct. 1, 1880	[2] 155,004.75
Balance on hand October 1, 1882	[3] 163,152.28
Balance on hand October 1, 1884	[4] 170,346.91
Balance on hand October 1, 1886	[5] 175,382.35
Balance on hand October 1, 1888	[6] 266,368.38
Balance on hand October 1, 1890	[7] 274,201.82
Balance on hand October 1, 1892	[7] 278,465.46
Balance on hand October 1, 1894	[8] 285,423.91

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[1] Includes $141,000 in State bonds.

[2] Includes $141,000 in State bonds. By error, in second quarter, 1879, $50,237.23 in State scrip belonging to this fund was burned. Replaced later.

[3] This includes $159,000 in 6 per cent 30-year Loughborough (State) bonds.

[4] This includes $166,000 in Loughborough bonds.

[5] In the second quarter, 1885, the $170,000 in Loughborough bonds then owned by the permanent school fund had been redeemed in accord with the act of issue (Laws 1874–75, p. 72, sec. 9), a similar amount being transferred from the sinking fund. These bonds had paid 6 per cent regularly.

[6] This includes $259,000 in 30-year 6 per cent Loughborough bonds of 1875 which had been received in exchange for 6 per cent funding bonds and coupons and 5 per cent State bank bonds and interest. This batch had not paid interest since July 1, 1887, and no provision was made by the act of 1887 (chap. 146) for this interest.

[7] This includes $265,000 in 6 per cent 30-year Loughborough bonds of 1875.

[8] This includes $265,000 in Loughborough bonds and $8,000 in 6 per cent funding bonds.

Balance on hand October 1, 1896		[1] 288,549.11
Balance on hand October 1, 1898		290,555.44
Made up as follows:		
Cash	$1,653.95	
6 per cent Loughborough bonds	265,000.00	
6 per cent funding bonds	10,000.00	
6 per cent funding bonds, interest	13,901.49	
		290,555.44
Receipts, October 1, 1898, to January 19, 1899, as per treasurer's books		183.71
		290,739.15
Expenditures, October 1, 1898, to January 19, 1899, as per treasurer's books		4,121.49
Balance on hand January 19, 1899		286,617.66
Made up as follows:		
Cash	$1,837.66	
6 per cent Loughborough bonds	265,000.00	
6 per cent funding bonds	10,000.00	
6 per cent funding bonds, interest	9,780.00	
		286,617.66
Receipts, all sources, January 19 to October 1, 1899:		
Cash		1,674.39
6 per cent funding bonds, interest		150.00
6 per cent funding bonds, interest		3,120.00
6 per cent Loughborough bonds, interest		190,260.00
		481,822.05
By transfer from the sixteenth section fund (q. v.), October 1, 1899, under act of May 8, 1899		649,700.00
Total		1,131,522.05
3 per cent 30-year funding bonds, issue 1899, bought under act of May 8, 1899:		
Principal		1,111,500.00
Coupons, not matured but carried as cash		1,000,350.00
		3,243,372.05
Total receipts, January 19 to October 1, 1899		3,243,372.05
Total receipts, October 1, 1899, to October 1, 1900:		
Cash		6,745.03
3 per cent 30-year funding bonds, bought		2,000.00
3 per cent 30-year unmatured coupons		1,740.00
Total receipts, January 19, 1899, to October 1, 1900		3,253,857.08
Total expenditures, January 19, 1899, to October 1, 1900, including all the 6 per cent Loughborough and 6 per cent funding bonds and their matured coupons, amounting to $1,128,010, exchanged by State debt board under funding act of May 8, 1899, for new 3 per cent 30-year funding bonds, issue of 1899 (the old bonds being destroyed after redemption)		1,166,402.83

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[1] This includes the same bonds as in 1894. The interest on the $8,000 of funding bonds, issues of 1869 and 1870, was due from Jan. 1, 1872; of the Loughborough issue of 1875, interest was due on $259,000 from July 1, 1887, and on $6,000 from Jan. 1, 1889. Interest due on these bonds Oct. 1, 1896, was $157,935.

Balance on hand October 1, 1900		$2,087,454.25
Made up as follows:		
Cash	$5,209.25	
3 per cent 30-year funding bonds	1,113,500.00	
		1,118,709.25
3 per cent 30-year coupons, not yet due		[1] 968,745.00
		2,087,454.25
Balance on hand October 1, 1902:		
Cash		8,872.85
3 per cent 30-year funding bonds		1,118,500.00
		1,127,372.85
Coupons not yet due		905,985.00
		2,033,357.85
Balance on hand October 1, 1904:		
Cash		6,861.27
Funding bonds		1,123,500.00
		1,130,361.27
Coupons not yet due		842,625.00
		1,972,986.27
Balance on hand October 1, 1906:		
Cash		7.95
Funding bonds		1,134,500.00
		1,134,507.95
Coupons not yet due		782,805.00
		1,917,312.95
Balance on hand October 1, 1908:		
Cash		965.25
Funding bonds		1,134,500.00
		1,135,465.25
Coupons not yet due		714,735.00
		1,850,200.25
Balance on hand October 1, 1910 (as reported September 5, 1910):		
Cash		3,405.85
Funding bonds, 3 per cent		1,134,500.00
		1,137,905.85
Coupons not yet due		646,665.00
		1,784,570.85

It does not appear that the permanent school fund as now constituted is as large as it should be. The State superintendent said in 1898–99 (pp. 28–29) that the amount arising (1) from the 2-mill tax,

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[1] While these coupons are not yet due, under a ruling of the State auditor they are carried as a charge against the State treasury.

(2) the future sales of sixteenth section lands, (3) 10 per cent of the sales of all State lands, (4) the interest on the permanent school fund, and (5) other small items "constitute what is known as the Common School Fund, which is apportioned to the various counties of the State pro rata." It would seem that properly items two and three should form a part of the permanent school fund. As now arranged, the State is spending principal, instead of interest.[1]

The State superintendents have not been slow to see that the permanent school fund (the interest-bearing fund) was not receiving all that was due it under the law. In his report for 1895–96, Supt. Jordan says (pp. 171–172):

> The necessary steps should be taken by the legislature to enforce section 6932 of Sandels & Hill's Digest. This was an act passed December 7, 1875, and it provided among other sources from which the "common-school funds" should be accumulated, that 10 per cent of the net proceeds of the sales of all State lands should be set aside for this purpose. There is no provision made in this act as to whose duty it is to make this distribution or assignment, whether the land commissioner or State treasurer. * * *
>
> Thus there has been lost to the "common-school fund" 10 per cent on all sales of public lands since the passage of the act of December 7, 1875. It appears to be a most remarkable remissness on the part of legislatures to manifest so little concern about those dearest and most sacred statutory interests of our public-school revenues. Probably by the neglect of this statute alone there has been lost to the "common-school fund" $50,000.
>
> According to the biennial report of this office for 1893–94 there was due to the "common-school fund" from this source, in 1888, $33,185.52, as ascertained by a senate committee in 1889. The increase due since that date has not been ascertained. It is a matter referred to the consideration of the legislature of 1897. It is recommended that the legislature appoint a committee on this subject, authorizing them to make a report of the amounts due to January, 1897. It is further urged that section 6932 be so amended as to require the proper officer to make year by year the allotment of this 10 per cent of the sales of public lands to the "common-school fund."

The State scrip burned under the law of May 28, 1874, either by error or otherwise, has also been a source of annoyance and trouble to the authorities.

The treasurer reports that there was burned under act of May 28, 1874:

State scrip belonging to common-school fund (i. e., the fund from which the annual apportionment was made and which may account in part for the failure of the schools in those years) in 1874	$746, 785. 76
Burned in fourth quarter	196, 987. 38
State scrip belonging to seminary fund:	
Burned by error, 1877–78	5, 780. 68
Burned by error, second quarter, 1879	1, 548. 84
State scrip belonging to saline fund:	
Burned by error, 1874	5, 542. 28
Burned by error, 1879–80	1, 955. 37

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[1] There was a small fund known as the State school interest fund. In third quarter, 1909, it amounted to $682.74; it was then transferred to the common school fund, and the account was closed.

State scrip belonging to permanent school fund:

Burned by error, 1874	128,841.32
Burned by error, 1879	50,237.23
	179,078.55

In the case of the permanent school fund the burned scrip was replaced by bonds of like amount. It is not clear what was done in the other cases.

The matter was considered by the assembly of 1893. The report of the senate committee, although but little illuminating, is given from Mr. Jordan's report for 1895–96:

> Section 1 of an act approved March 18, 1881, provides:
>
> That all noninterest-bearing State scrip collected by the collectors of the respective counties for State school purposes shall be by them paid into the State treasury, as now provided by law, and the same scrip paid out by the State treasurer upon the warrants of the auditor.
>
> In compliance with this act the treasurer paid out, as directed, all noninterest scrip so received by him for the common-school fund, but as a large proportion of his receipts in scrip for this fund about that time and for several years afterwards was interest-bearing, which under the law he was prohibited from paying out, he was compelled of course in paying warrants drawn against it to issue new noninterest-bearing scrip therefor, leaving the interest-bearing scrip at the credit of the fund on his books, and thereby increasing that credit to an amount largely in excess of that actually belonging to the school fund and subject to apportionment; and although ex-Treasurer Woodruff turned over to his successor in office $114,990.80 in State scrip, as borne upon his books as a credit to the common-school fund, only $14,935.90 of that amount was subject to apportionment. And if we add to this $578.97 scrip, received by Treasurer Morrow on account of this fund, we have $15,514.87 as the correct balance of scrip due the common school fund.[1]

As early as 1871 the United States Commissioner of Education estimated that the permanent school fund had lost up to that time three-quarters of a million dollars. This and subsequent losses are due in the main to:

(1) Failure to collect payment for lands sold or money borrowed.

(2) Diversion of school funds to meet other pressing needs and not replacing them.

(3) Insufficient legislation, as in case of the 10 per cent fund.

(4) Destruction of scrip belonging to this fund without replacing the same.

(5) Distributing the principal instead of using interest only, as is now done with the sixteenth section fund.

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[1] Superintendent's Report, 1895–96, pp. 172–173, quoting Senate Jour., 1893, 779 et seq.

CHAPTER X.

MISCELLANEOUS MATTERS.

I. AUXILIARY EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES.

Arkansas Teachers' Association.—Among the various subsidiary aids to the public schools the Arkansas Teachers' Association has been by no means the least, nor is it unimportant in itself. This association was organized in 1869, held its first meeting in Little Rock, and had State Supt. Thomas Smith, who seems to have been the chief organizing force, as its first president. It decayed with the decline of the reconstruction era, but on passing into the hands of the Conservatives with the other machinery of government it began again to increase in power. It was instrumental in directing the educational policy of the Conservatives; indeed, its members were largely responsible for the school laws of 1873 and 1875. Since 1872 it has maintained its organization, although its vitality has varied greatly at times; within the last 20 years it has had a rather steady and substantial growth. It now has nearly 1,300 members. Its proceedings, some of them issued in pamphlet form, contain many interesting and suggestive papers. Better than this, it shows that the public school teachers in Arkansas are earnestly seeking for higher results and in their search are not bound by the mere conventionalities of custom.

The educational press.—Nearly as old as the teachers' association, and of almost equal value educationally, have been the various school journals published in Arkansas, but their history has been full of the vicissitudes which so often overtake the publications that seek to be something more than mere caterers to the whims and caprices of the moment.

First came the Arkansas Journal of Education, founded by Thomas Smith, then State superintendent, and published from Little Rock. It appeared as a newspaper in 1870, was changed to magazine form with January, 1871, and was published through 1872. Smith was succeeded by Corbin as State superintendent in January, 1873, and as no numbers of his journal after that date are discoverable it may be assumed that it was soon discontinued.

This journal shows the characteristics of the period. There were long extracts from other publications—literary, historical, or moral and hortatory in tone. There was little that bore directly on the school questions of the locality; there were few letters, questions, or discussions by the teachers of the State. It may not have been the fault of the editor, but the practical application of its contributions had to be made by the reader himself.

The next educational magazine to appear in the State was the Arkansas School Journal, of which the first number was published in November, 1880. The editor was J. R. Weathers, an Indiana teacher of much experience who had also taught in Arkansas. This was a private venture which tried to work hand in hand with the school officials and got closer to the teachers of the State than the earlier venture had done. There were contributions by leading Arkansas educators, but the bulk of the text was still clipped from other sources. The Journal sought to hold up the hands of the superintendent, encouraged the voting of the special tax and printed the proceedings of the teachers' association.

Mr. Weathers surrendered the editorial work within a year and was succeeded by Hon. James L. Denton, then State superintendent, under whose enthusiastic administration it became more distinctively local. But the essential element of financial support was lacking. Prof. Denton died, and J. Kellogg became business manager and acting editor. With the beginning of volume 3, January, 1883, the name was changed to Kellogg's Eclectic Monthly. With Prof. O. V. Hays as editor the scope of the publication was widened and an appeal made to a broader clientele, but there was little response, and with the number for July, 1883, this publication went the way its predecessor had gone.

Then came the Arkansas Teacher, issued from Russellville by the Arkansas Evangel Publishing Co., with Prof. Josiah Hazen Shinn as editor. The second number appeared in February, 1884. It was a very modest octavo of 8 pages with cover, published at 50 cents per year. The increasing patronage caused it to develop by July into a quarto of 8 pages with cover, and the price was raised to $1. In the hands of this veteran school man the Teacher was racy of the soil. It grew and developed for a time; it again doubled its size, but it was not well supported and died. The last number seen is that for December, 1885, volume 2, No. 12.

After the suspension of Prof. Shinn's Arkansas Teacher there was a long intermission. About November, 1896, the Arkansas School Journal was issued. The first number of this journal examined is that for May, 1899, which is volume 3, No. 7. It was then edited and published by E. L. Gatewood and W. J. McIlwain and appeared in quarto form of 24 pages.

This journal is also racy of the soil, for it is made up almost entirely of the work of Arkansas teachers; it contains articles and discussions by them; reports meetings; has suggestions of local and practical value, and has even reached the reflective stage, printing now and then the reminiscences of the men who have grown gray in the educational service of the State. In January, 1901, Mr. Gatewood retired from the publication. The whole duty of the office was then assumed by Mr. McIlwain, who organized in connection with his journal a teachers' agency and school-supply business.

The school-improvement associations.—The first school-improvement association was organized in Arkansas about 1905, and the first center of activity was Little Rock. The preliminary success of this work was so marked that in 1908 the Conference for Education in the South devoted $1,000 to the advancement of the work, and in October of that year Supt. George B. Cook began a vigorous campaign, with the result that in January, 1909, there were reported 76 associations, with a membership of 2,256 and an expenditure of $9,585 for repairs and improvements in the material equipment of the schools. It is to be noted that most of this money was earned by the associations themselves, working in connection with the school children. Nor is the money side the most important, for this effort to secure physical betterment for the school creates interest, enthusiasm, and love. It fosters local pride and serves in a most admirable way to attract and increase the interest of patrons. Says one of the leaders:

> We want to make the school-improvement association of Arkansas the housekeeping department of the public schools. The school board must take care of the finances. The teacher has time for little outside of the curriculum. It devolves upon the mother to make the schoolhouse a place where she will be glad for her child to spend a part of each day, a place with well-chosen pictures on clean walls, good books for needed reference, and school grounds to which they may point with pride, with at least 90 per cent of our children in school 9 months of each year.[1]

From clean walls and clean rooms it is not a far call to more beautiful school grounds and the school gardens which usually accompany them. In the rural district the same ideas are developed in the organization of corn clubs for the boys and poultry clubs for the girls. Then come similar organizations for other lines of work, and the net result is a greatly increased interest in schoolroom work, in the study of agriculture to which it leads, and improved methods and intensive farming.

The school-improvement association issues also plans and suggestions for school buildings, with details for heating, lighting, and ventilating; for desks, sewerage, sanitation, etc. A handsome, sterling silver loving cup is awarded each year to the local school-improvement association doing the greatest amount of practical work. According to the last report of the State superintendent, there are now 255 school-improvement associations in the State, with more than 10,000 members, and they have invested $400 in school equipment and facilities for each dollar put into the campaign by the Southern Education Board.

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[1] A Year Book of School Improvement in Arkansas [1909].

Teachers' reading circle.—The teachers of the State are slowly coming into their own through their growing class consciousness and its expression in the State teachers' association and similar organizations. They are beginning to realize their power, and since they have begun to express themselves fully and boldly on matters of public moment they are coming to have more influence on educational legislation, which is now ceasing to be the football of politics.

The State furnishes normal training through a six-weeks' course at the State university; through the normal school for whites at Conway and the branch normal school at Pine Bluff for negroes; through the agricultural-training schools at Jonesboro, Russellville, Magnolia, and Monticello; and through the county institutes. Some teachers also make use of correspondence courses, while the professional spirit has led many to follow systematic courses of pedagogy at home. These have organized themselves into the Arkansas teachers' reading circle, which dates from 1905. In 1910 the circle reported 2,538 members. By encouraging the reading of professional and cultural works the circle has produced such good results among the teachers that the same principle is being applied in the Arkansas pupils' reading circle. Through these circles it is hoped to lay the foundations of public-school libraries, by furnishing the teachers with lists of suitable books at reduced prices.

Southern Education Board.—The Southern Education Board has also been of much service in promoting educational interests in Arkansas. It has made the education commission possible through its financial support, has encouraged the school-improvement association, and contributed to the funds needed for carrying on the campaign of organization. It has also provided the funds for a professorship of elementary education in Arkansas, which was filled by the appointment in January, 1912, of J. L. Bond, who was then deputy State superintendent. He will devote his whole time to the work of assisting the rural communities in developing their schools, will aid the county and local organizations in their efforts to standardize, and when possible will advance the work of consolidation.

The education commission.—This commission, appointed by Gov. Donaghey, is supported out of funds contributed by the Southern Education Board. Its purpose is to investigate the school system of Arkansas and the laws under which it is organized and operated, to make a comparative study of other school systems, to awaken sentiment, and to formulate recommendations. The State in the last generation has grown marvelously in material and industrial resources—

> but the laws governing the organization and administration of our public schools have made but little progress. Since the framing of the body of our school law frequent additions, having but little logical unity, have been made. We need a readjustment of the system to meet the higher demands of our civilization.[1]

The commission has no authority to make laws. Its functions are purely advisory. From a careful, detailed, and comparative study of the school situation it is expected (1) to remodel the old school law to date; (2) to provide for modern growth and expansion; (3) to arouse sentiment by means of bulletins, addresses, etc.; (4) to bring about the practical business administration of school affairs.

The commission consists of 20 well-known citizens, who represent the university, the State Normal School, the city school superintendents, the county examiners, the rural teachers, the private colleges, the press, the Federal bench, the circuit judges, the Farmers' Union, the labor organizations, the Federation of Women's Clubs, the School Improvement Associations, and private business.

At its first meeting the commission decided to direct its work to the investigation of matters pertaining to a State board of education, State aid to high schools, and consolidation of schools.

That this large and representative body of earnest workers is already making itself felt is shown by the creation of a State board of education and the passing of laws looking to consolidation and the support of rural high schools by the assembly of 1911.

The work of the commission has been done by means of committees and published bulletins, of which more than 100,000 copies have been distributed.

State board of education.—The complaint has been that, since the office of superintendent is an elective one and in general the incumbent is changed every four years, the school system suffers from "lack of a continuing policy," that there is "no continuity," that the system has "just grown up." It is believed that the State board of education will meet these needs.

Says Supt. Cook, in the Proceedings of the Teachers' Association for 1910, page 57:

> We need in our educational system a steady, continuous policy. At present the general direction of our educational affairs is in the hands of the State superintendent of public instruction. His term of office is two years, and he usually succeeds himself for the second term.
>
> Educational reforms are of slow growth. An examination of the biennial reports of the State superintendent of Arkansas since 1868 shows that many excellent reforms, tested and approved by experience of other States, have been urged at disjointed intervals by the various incumbents in office. It is this lack of continuity that has weakened the work of the department of education.

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[1] Cook's Report, 1909-10, p. 11-12.

It was believed that this situation would be relieved by the creation of a permanent State board of education. This was done by act of June 1, 1911, which provides for a general supervisory body consisting of the State superintendent of public instruction and one member from each congressional district, who are appointed by the governor for a term of 7 years, one going out of office each year.

Their duties are:

(1) To manage and invest the permanent school fund and to collect all moneys due it.

(2) To charter academies, colleges, and universities; to determine what institutions shall confer degrees and under what conditions; to inspect such institutions and, if necessary, revoke their charters.

(3) To issue State teachers' licenses and to revoke the same.

(4) To have general supervision of the public schools; to prepare and distribute plans and specifications; to provide courses for rural, elementary, graded, and high schools; to control teachers' institutes and medical and sanitary inspection; to classify and standardize public schools; to provide for new forms of educational effort "and shall, in general, take such action as may be necessary to promote the organization and increase the efficiency of the educational system of the State."

Arkansas Library Association.—Another important aid to education was the organization of the Arkansas Library Association. This organization, the result of the cooperation of the Little Rock Public Library and the Carnegie Library of Fort Smith with the Arkansas Federation of Women's Clubs, held its first meeting at Little Rock on January 26, 1911. The address of the occasion was by Dr. Bostwick, of the St. Louis Public Library, who discussed the public library as a public utility, and the agitation for a better library law for Arkansas began.

At the second annual meeting, held January 24 and 25, 1912, progress was reported. Mrs. Arthur P. Jones spoke on "An ideal system of libraries for the State," pointing out needed educational reforms and the necessity for a library commission, although the present State law allows any city of the first or second class to obtain under certain conditions an appropriation from the general fund for a library building or for maintenance purposes. Mr. Harry E. Kelly, in discussing the "Value of libraries to Arkansas," sounded a note of progress when he advocated the elimination from the constitution of all limitations on the right of local taxation, thus allowing each community "to levy a tax adequate for schools and libraries." A committee was appointed to draw a bill carrying a reasonable appropriation, which is to be presented to the next legislature, for the organization of a library commission. The association urgently recommended—

in order to keep the work out of political control, that no member of the commission shall be such by virtue of his office, and that the secretary employed by the commissioners shall be an experienced librarian and a graduate of a good library school.

In the meantime it was determined to put a secretary in the field for at least a part of the year at the expense of the association.[1]

The interest in local and rural libraries in connection with the public schools, and catering in particular to the needs of the pupils, is also growing, and some progress has been made in supplying suitable collections to individual schools.

II. THE NEGRO SCHOOLS.

A study of elementary education in the South would seem incomplete without specific mention of the negro, and yet in Arkansas such is hardly necessary, for before the law there is no distinction of race.

In ante bellum days the negro received no education in terms of the school, and yet in the terms of life he was among the best educated of men. He had that education which made him of most service as a slave and which was of the greatest value when he became a freedman. He was taught the practical arts of rural life—carpentry, blacksmithing, shoemaking, horseshoeing, farming, gardening, overseeing, and indoor domestic service. The women were taught to cook, wash, iron, sew, keep house, nurse, and do domestic service. This education was eminently practical; it was in the form which they could most easily acquire, to which they were by nature best fitted, and no time was wasted on the acquirement of theoretical or ornamental knowledge.

It is noteworthy also that in the organization of the industrial schools for Indian and negro pupils of the present day the ante bellum slave plantation system has been used largely as a model for present-day institutions and is as successful under the present day régime as as it was under other conditions.

By the Arkansas school law of July 23, 1868, the negro was admitted to school privileges on equal terms with the whites. Since that time there has been no alteration or curtailment of his privileges. But this common service to the two races has not been maintained always without effort. There have been formal propositions to divide the school funds in proportion to the amount paid by each race, but, while by far the greater part of the school moneys come from white citizens, there seems never to have been any widespread disposition to give the negro less than his proportionate share as based on relative population.

Since these schools share alike with the whites, they can have little separate history except in detail. They consist of elementary and grammar grade schools, with high schools in the larger towns, the whole being supplemented by the Branch Normal College at Pine Bluff, which prepares the colored teachers of the State for their work, and trains its other pupils in the manual, industrial, and higher studies.

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[1] Library Journal, March, 1911, and March, 1912.

There have never been mixed schools in Arkansas, for the law of July 23, 1868, provided for the maintenance of separate schools (sec. 107), but the general discussions of men and measures, successes and failures, which have applied to the white schools during the 44 years of their post bellum life apply equally, mutatis mutandis, to the colored schools.

The first schools for negroes in Arkansas were those organized by the Freedmen's Bureau. As soon as the Civil War was ended, the reconstruction régime established, and the school system organized, the freedmen's schools were taken over by the State and administered as a part of the State system. No doubt both were gainers thereby, for the system received a number of schools already organized and in running order, while the schools for their part were assured of a greater permanence under the administration of the State.

In January, 1870, the State board of education addressed to Gen. O. O. Howard, head of the Freedmen's Bureau, a memorial in which they cited—

> the great amount of prejudice which has prevailed in many localities against the inauguration and maintenance of common schools since the work of reconstruction has been completed and especially against those schools designed for the use and benefit of our colored citizens.

They also asked financial help for the Arkansas Journal of Education. It does not appear that the help requested was forthcoming, but it is evident that there was soon a clash with the school directors of Little Rock on the matter of authority. The State board of education, declaring that under sections 101, 106, and 107 of the general school law they had ample power in the premises, ordered the teachers in the colored free public schools—

> in addition to the reports they are required to make to the trustees or to school boards under the State department, also to make a report promptly at the end of each month to the superintendent of schools for the freedmen, and that said schools receive their pro rata share of the school fund, the same as schools for white children.

Against this order the Little Rock school board issued a counter order to the effect that the board would not "hereafter pay or employ any teacher who recognizes any authority for the control of their schools other than this board."

No other mention of the quarrel has been found, but it is not hard to guess which was winner, for he who holds the purse strings has the whiphand. The schools in that city seem to have developed pari passu, for as early as 1882 there was a high school for negro pupils, the course of study of which was the same as that in the high school for the whites.

Difficulty is experienced in some of the northern counties, where the negro children are scattered. In such cases practical consolidation is permitted. In the majority of cases the school terms of the races are equal, and each receives its proper proportion of the school funds; thus, in 1890, according to Shinn's report, 107,683 negro children received $319,818.51 and 297,904 white children received $884,774.88.

The professional instruction of teachers has not been neglected. In December, 1911, the Colored Teachers' Association had about 300 members. The Branch Normal School was established by act of 1873, opened in 1875, and until 1902 was under direction of Prof. J. C. Corbin, who had been State superintendent in reconstruction days; since then it has been under Prof. Isaac Fisher, a graduate of Tuskegee. Besides the work offered in regular classes at the Branch Normal School, Prof. Corbin conducted many county institutes under the auspices of the State. In 1897 and 1898 there were 33 normal schools held for negroes by aid of State and Peabody funds. They were scattered over the State and were conducted by the best colored teachers. The total enrollment in 1897 was 2,172; in 1898 it was 2,140; the per cent of enrollment was 64 in 1897 and 65 in 1898. In 1899 there were 15 institutes held for negroes and 12 in 1900; with an attendance of 761 and 594, respectively.

In recent years the Branch Normal School has come to serve not only as a place for normal and industrial instruction but also for instruction in the higher literary studies and as a center for the social life and thought of the race. It is even entering on still larger duties, for Prof. Fisher says that the school—

> must, by some subtle process, remove from the mind of the average negro pupil the belief that the State cares little for his education. * * * If I were asked to give one result, aside from the purely literary value of this school which makes its support a paying investment to Arkansas, I would say that the gradual removal of distrust and hatred from the minds of negro pupils justifies every dollar spent for the maintenance of the Branch Normal College.

And looking into the future he adds:

> If this school is seriously expected to reach the criminal class [of negroes] which does not go to school, there must be placed in the hands of those who direct its work broader opportunities of social service than the school now possesses. It is not enough to teach the children; means must be found by which the people may be reached.

The statistics of the negro schools, so far as they can be separated from the general State statistics, are given as a part of the general educational statistics.

III. REVIEW AND ASPIRATIONS.

When we come to cast a backward glance over the road along which public school education in Arkansas has come, we have many reasons for encouragement.

Based on Federal land grants the public schools developed slowly and unevenly and did not accomplish as much as might have been reasonably expected. Because of carelessness and ignorance, rather than by reason of direct dishonesty, a large part of the Federal endowment had been lost before the outbreak of the Civil War and a larger part went down in that maelstrom. But while much of the school lands passed into private hands without due compensation, it was only the price of the wild lands that was lost, for the land itself remained and has been an increasingly valuable source of taxation.

Such schools as were organized in ante bellum days gave a good account of themselves and proved their right to exist. Not only did they in the private and public elementary schools and academies teach the three R's and the school subjects growing immediately out of them, but they even ventured out into unexplored fields; some undertook to teach agriculture, and in 1840 Gov. Yell sent a message to the assembly dealing with the subject of agricultural and mechanical instruction in such a way as to give him a place among the pioneers in that field of education. There was also as early as 1843 a noteworthy effort to furnish a uniform series of textbooks to the schools—not free textbooks, as we understand the term to-day, but at any rate uniform textbooks offered at uniform and reduced prices.

The various efforts at organization were but little better than failures, yet each successive move added to the experience of the people and had evolved so far by 1854 as to require a general supervision of the system by the secretary of state, and this remained the nominal condition of affairs to the beginning of the Civil War. After that was over, with an alacrity not to be expected and a marvelous penetration of the future, the war-stricken State, then in the hands of ex-Confederates, abandoned the old system and placed the hope of the future on taxation. Then came the Reconstructionists who built on the still wider basis of taxation and education for all regardless of race.

But these seeds were sown on stony ground and not in the deep rich soil of popular approval. Schools sprung up, indeed, but were soon scorched by the hot sun of reconstruction politics. Then Hill made a new planting; Denton watered and nourished by his persuasive eloquence; Thompson carried them through their tender years; Shinn taught them the lessons of their own strength, encouraged self-reliance through the work already accomplished, pointed the way for greater usefulness and higher development, inspired dissatisfaction with attainments already reached, and demanded the opportunity for the greater usefulness that comes with more adequate resources. Jordan, Kuykendall, Doyne, and Hinemon strengthened the stakes and enlarged the boundaries of this educational Zion. They developed the plans undertaken, reenforced the weak places in the system, evolved new lines of work, and extended the scope, scheme, and usefulness of the schools. By a continuous aggressive campaign they proved their importance, their necessity to the State even to the dullest, and after a campaign covering more than a dozen years, succeeded in having the constitutional tax limit raised from 2 to 3 mills for the State and from 5 to 7 mills for the districts.

Then Cook entered upon their labors and, building on their foundation, undertook present-day problems which could not have been considered in earlier days: High schools, compulsory attendance, consolidation and transportation, agricultural and other rural schools, correlation, libraries, and many others.

In his report for 1909–10, just published, Cook can well afford to point out the immense strides that have been made in the last few years and in particular in the last biennial period. Since 1900 the value of public school property has increased from $2,500,000 to $7,000,000; the school term from 77.4 days to 106.5 days (113 in 1911); the number of teachers from 7,000 to more than 9,500; the average number of pupils per teacher has been reduced from 72 to 60; the revenue per capita for each census child has been raised from $4.13 to $7.82; the average monthly salary of teachers has risen from $32 to $56 per school month, and the average salary per school year has been raised to $294.

In the past two years, because of the increase in school funds, school property has augmented in value by $2,000,000, and 2½ weeks has been added to the average length of the school terms. The spirit of class consciousness among the teachers is steadily growing, as is manifested by increased efforts, by means of summer institutes, correspondence schools, systematic home courses, reading circles, etc., to add to their professional equipment. These agencies for the improvement of teachers are in addition to the summer normal schools which were instituted by the State for the first time in 1910 and the six weeks' summer courses now offered at the State normal and at the State university. These means of professional improvement make it possible gradually to raise the standard for teachers' certificates. These courses are so arranged that the teachers attending may receive credits for their work at the summer schools to be applied on the regular normal course, the completion of which gives a professional license good for six years and convertible at the end of that time into a State life license.

The local farmers' institutes, conducted by the College of Agriculture, have proved directly profitable to the farmers of the State and have done much to popularize agricultural education and to give a wider appreciation of the practical value of this training. Compulsory attendance is effective in 40 counties and "the percentage of gain in school attendance was 11 times as great in territory under the compulsory attendance laws as was the gain per cent in the remainder of the State." Forty-one counties are using uniform textbooks and eight have changed from the old county examiner to the new county superintendent. There has been contributed, mainly by the General Education Board, the sum of $18,500 to advance educational interests. This has been divided as follows: For school improvement and extension work, $3,000; for supervising secondary education, $7,000; for the agricultural department of the State normal school, $5,000; for the Arkansas education commission, $3,500.

In his address before the State Teachers' Association in December last, Supt. Cook attributes the educational accomplishments of the last few years largely to this commission. He says in part:

> This wonderful showing did not come about by accident. It stands as a concrete proof of the great educational awakening in our State. It is very significant that, at a time when our legislators were almost hopelessly divided on many important issues, there was always a safe majority for all progressive public-school measures.
>
> For more than a year before the last general assembly opened its session the Arkansas education commission had been faithfully at work, explaining and building up sentiment among the people for certain basic measures necessary to give firm foundation for our educational growth. The work of the education commission was fully presented to this assembly last year and unanimously indorsed by recorded resolution, and most of those present have some share in the great legislative victory that came. The teachers not only indorsed, but actively supported the work of the commission. The press and the pulpit rang over the State with news notices, editorials, discourses, and sermons.
>
> The citizens responded and in many instances elected men to the legislature who were pledged to the support of the school measures exploited by our education commission. These men were true to these pledges, as our acts of 1911 plainly show, and many of those who aspire to seats in the next general assembly find their most effective campaign argument in their educational records and in their more or less well-known standing for educational progress.

Better still, the interrelations of the school and the schoolhouse on life in general and on community life in particular is now being realized as never before. This chapter can not be better closed than by quoting in full Prof. Torreyson's Rural School Outline:

> 1. The man or woman who can make rural schools do for the people of Arkansas what it is possible for them to do will be the greatest benefactor the State has ever had.
>
> 2. The greatest need for the schools is not more money, more efficient teachers, or a better system, though these are necessary; it is vision—that the people of the State may see the possibilities for public service in the utilization of the rural schools—that an ideal rural public school—one that shall touch the community life at all points—be formed in the minds of the people. When the people see that kind of school they will want it and will have it.

3. The ideal public school—

(a) Is a consolidated school which makes possible sufficient taxable wealth, a proper building, long term, high-school grades also, accurate grading, close supervision, adequate equipment.

(b) Has a democratic course of study, including usual literary course, agriculture, manual training, household economics, commercial transactions.

(c) A continuation school for adults, including illustration, teaching bookkeeping, commercial geography, commercial arithmetic, commercial law, economics, current events, etc.

(d) A meeting place for women's social and study clubs, farmers' clubs, farm demonstrations and exhibits, boys' corn clubs and exhibits, cooking and sewing and like demonstrations and exhibits.

(e) A place for entertainments of all kinds, lectures on practical and scientific subjects, politics, school exhibitions, debating clubs, moving pictures.

(f) Contain a public circulating library.

(g) A place for Saturday afternoon athletic games.

(i) A place for nonsectarian religious meetings.

4. The people will get an ideal like this when the teachers get it and with the assistance of the preachers and newspapers spread it, and by making an object lesson of such a school in favored localities.[1]

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[1] Proceedings Arkansas Teachers' Association, 1911, pp. 54, 227-218.

PUBLIC SCHOOL STATISTICS, 1868–1912.

TABLE I.—*School population, teachers, property, and school year.*

Years.	Total school population.	Total number teachers.	Negro teachers.	Number schoolhouses.	Value school property.	Days in school year.
1868[1]				632		
1869	176,910	1,335		872	$128,585	
1870	182,474	2,302		1,289	235,530	
1871	196,237	2,128		1,591	199,133	
1872	194,314	2,035		1,778	255,046	
1873	148,128	1,481		1,035	354,791	
1874	168,929					
1875	168,929					
1876	189,130	461		1,399	365,415	
1877	203,567	826		610	166,792	
1878	216,475	875		480	118,513	
1879	236,600	1,458		712	151,564	
1880	247,457	1,872		785	198,607	
1881	272,841	2,169		968	283,125	
1882	289,617	2,501	471	1,286	254,217	
1883	304,962	2,462		1,372	294,519	
1884	323,943	2,899	581	1,453	384,827	
1885	338,506	3,582		1,676	424,521	
1886	358,006	3,691		1,769	554,873	
1887	377,736	4,167		2,102	644,067	
1888	388,129	4,664		2,452	705,276	
1889	404,379	5,945		2,535	788,828	
1890	405,587	4,785		2,592	649,069	
1891	418,566	4,945	1,077	2,736	1,765,831	76.67
1892	422,252	5,641	1,173	2,946	1,485,071	73.82
1893	425,349	6,314	1,374	3,544	1,442,387	73.39
1894	436,335	6,286	1,408	3,866	1,769,086	73.06
1895	448,941	6,396		4,113	1,612,277	71.37
1896	456,736	6,673		4,440	1,929,206	69.68
1897	463,565	7,181	1,564	4,865	2,130,092	66.56
1898	465,565	7,073	1,537	4,936	2,294,396	68.87
1899	472,508	6,727	1,367	5,015	2,635,367	77.50
1900	484,619	6,959	1,441	5,233	2,616,536	77.48
1901	491,746	7,472	1,556	5,254	2,564,165	84.00
1902	495,368	7,723	1,643	5,063	2,901,212	91.50
1903	502,808	7,474	1,488	5,478	3,126,646	92.00
1904	517,433	7,762	1,636	5,533	3,355,292	92.78
1905	527,524	7,826	1,652	5,510	3,171,361	88.30
1906	530,571	7,581	1,402	5,288	3,607,783	88.60
1907	533,843	8,113	1,651	5,714	4,038,627	93.32
1908	544,519	8,297	1,616	5,704	4,850,857	93.95
1909	557,468	9,164	1,864	6,008	6,067,342	98.20
1910	573,842	9,522	1,885	6,182	6,939,320	106.50
1911	585,749	9,834	1,991	6,306	7,872,856	113.90
1912	603,226	10,175	1,948	6,338	10,131,828	117.90

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[1] Up to 1876 the school year ended with the fiscal year, on Sept. 30. Since then it has ended with June 30. The school age is 6 to 21.

TABLE II.—*Enrollment and attendance.*

Years.	Total school enrollment.[1]		Average school attendance.			Negro.					
	Number.	Per cent of total school population.	Number.	Per cent of enrollment in average attendance.	Per cent of school population in average attendance.	School population.	School enrollment.	Per cent of school population enrolled.	Average school attendance.	Per cent of enrollment in average attendance.	Per cent of school population in average attendance.
1868	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1869	68,823	38.9	......	......	......	40,478	10,884	26.8	......	......	......
1870	107,908	59.1	......	......	......	38,684	19,280	49.8	......	......	......
1871	109,309	55.7	......	......	......	41,655	13,210	31.7	......	......	......
1872	93,974	48.3	......	......	......	16,417	2,500	......	......	......	......
1873	59,587	40.2	......	......	......	37,293	......	......	......	......	......
1874	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1875	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1876	15,890	8.4	......	......	......	27,574	......	......	......	......	......
1877	33,370	16.3	......	......	......	43,518	......	......	......	......	......
1878	33,740	15.5	......	......	......	46,017	......	......	......	......	......
1879	55,049	23.2	......	......	......	55,901	......	......	......	......	......
1880	70,973	28.3	......	......	......	54,332	......	......	......	......	......
1881	98,744	36.1	......	......	......	65,206	......	......	......	......	......
1882	117,696	40.6	56,291	48.0	19.4	69,113	23,139	33.5	......	......	......
1883	112,233	36.4	......	......	......	76,429	28,132	36.8	......	......	......
1884	153,216	47.3	......	......	......	76,770	37,568	48.9	......	......	......
1885	164,757	48.6	......	......	......	86,216	42,461	49.2	......	......	......
1886	175,935	49.1	......	......	......	91,818	46,798	50.6	......	......	......
1887	183,095	48.4	......	......	......	98,512	48,452	49.2	......	......	......
1888	202,754	52.2	......	......	......	99,748	50,570	50.7	......	......	......
1889	216,152	53.4	......	......	......	106,714	56,382	52.8	......	......	......
1890	205,262	50.6	......	......	......	107,683	51,003	47.3	......	......	......
1891	242,117	57.8	123,625	51.0	29.5	112,176	63,830	56.9	......	......	......
1892	251,452	59.5	140,445	55.8	33.2	114,471	64,191	56.9	......	......	......
1893	264,576	62.1	145,835	55.1	34.3	115,981	66,921	57.7	......	......	......
1894	285,159	65.3	166,544	58.3	38.1	120,166	76,050	63.2	......	......	......
1895	292,305	65.1	170,410	58.2	37.8	123,645	76,987	62.2	......	......	......
1896	296,575	64.7	171,948	58.1	37.6	124,957	78,276	62.6	43,488	55.5	34.8
1897	319,053	68.6	197,510	61.9	42.6	127,635	82,909	64.9	51,486	62.1	40.3
1898	303,808	67.4	191,447	63.0	41.1	129,397	79,561	61.4	48,647	61.1	37.5
1899	301,387	63.7	177,307	58.8	37.5	131,016	76,546	58.4	45,876	59.9	35.0
1900	314,662	64.9	195,401	62.1	40.3	135,554	84,317	62.2	52,656	62.4	38.8
1901	323,859	65.8	200,100	61.7	40.6	138,230	84,481	61.1	52,721	62.4	38.1
1902	340,695	68.7	214,981	63.1	43.3	141,520	90,109	63.8	56,290	62.4	39.7
1903	337,589	67.1	213,372	63.2	42.4	143,048	87,895	61.4	54,147	61.6	37.8
1904	339,542	65.6	212,131	62.4	40.9	146,880	90,437	61.5	58,177	64.3	39.6
1905	335,765	63.6	207,440	61.7	39.3	148,851	87,125	58.5	53,329	61.2	35.8
1906	345,146	65.0	214,281	62.0	40.3	151,461	90,185	59.5	54,564	60.5	36.0
1907	348,152	63.3	220,621	63.3	41.3	152,044	89,538	58.2	55,083	61.5	36.2
1908	366,054	67.2	232,670	63.5	42.7	157,543	94,292	59.9	59,087	62.6	37.5
1909	374,104	67.1	238,329	63.7	42.7	162,187	98,755	60.9	59,597	60.3	36.1
1910	395,978	69.0	255,135	69.4	44.4	169,007	100,640	59.5	62,437	62.0	36.9
1911	404,760	69.1	255,405	60.6	43.6	174,503	109,618	62.8	66,958	61.0	38.4
1912	409,746	67.9	261,747	63.9	43.4	175,503	109,731	62.5	68,040	62.0	38.7

[1] Including both the white and the colored.

TABLE III.—*School revenues.*

Years.	State tax.	District tax.	Poll tax.	Balance on hand.	All other sources.	Total.	Revenue per child.
1868	$190,492	$110,176	....	....	....	[1] $300,669	....
1869	187,427	334,952	....	....	....	536,896	$3.03
1870	167,973	320,810	....	....	....	488,783	2.71
1871	212,376	193,089	....	....	$7,684	413,150	2.10
1872	....	....	....	....	....	210,176	1.08
1873	17,840	220,133	....	....	....	435,349	2.94
1874	....	....	....	....	....	65,522	.39
1875	....	....	....	....	....	40,444	.24
1876	105,506	87,739	....	....	....	302,670	1.60
1877	85,268	101,407	....	....	33,381	269,621	1.32
1878	65,864	77,645	....	....	10,478	276,647	1.27
1879	109,561	92,675	....	....	20,811	271,184	1.15
1880	111,605	77,474	....	....	19,406	285,471	1.15
1881	....	....	....	....	....	710,461	2.60
1882	177,985	237,303	$91,997	[2] $147,828	22,821	[3] 722,371	2.49
1883	167,880	261,208	108,038	137,861	65,256	740,244	2.42
1884	150,688	346,521	165,929	260,772	39,748	963,660	2.97
1885	276,629	343,885	124,973	386,961	66,556	1,199,005	3.25
1886	239,989	445,563	159,133	456,134	26,889	1,327,710	3.71
1887	264,006	462,191	133,193	421,694	52,062	1,333,147	3.53
1888	315,403	505,069	146,604	370,942	45,890	1,383,909	3.54
1889	289,004	503,816	143,802	482,133	14,909	1,433,666	3.54
1890	295,492	545,843	240,618	526,675	13,880	1,622,510	4.00
1891	321,545	600,102	154,728	592,429	10,860	1,679,666	4.01
1892	341,621	571,923	167,419	643,316	15,305	1,739,586	4.12
1893	301,743	699,065	168,131	500,015	16,789	1,685,744	3.94
1894	321,070	676,459	155,361	511,611	26,231	1,700,734	3.67
1895	331,786	639,627	148,983	464,419	....	1,599,257	3.56
1896	321,221	698,649	169,326	469,024	....	1,675,991	3.66
1897	328,802	761,082	190,584	447,607	51,618	1,779,695	3.84
1898	331,487	716,951	173,095	506,374	33,911	1,761,820	3.78
1899	387,436	762,110	170,050	526,218	15,385	1,861,199	3.51
1900	446,557	805,412	163,564	570,595	19,111	2,005,241	4.13
1901	423,064	836,181	183,248	636,206	42,610	2,121,491	4.31
1902	490,017	923,834	186,490	724,897	40,703	2,365,943	4.81
1903	559,593	924,615	171,198	759,043	19,041	2,433,491	4.84
1904	542,685	1,050,070	190,577	870,461	47,040	2,701,734	5.22
1905	593,513	1,191,343	188,260	938,517	68,817	2,980,453	5.65
1906	607,140	1,309,012	212,088	1,003,779	214,070	3,346,091	6.36
1907	706,711	1,332,199	204,980	1,139,902	184,233	3,568,027	6.68
1908	688,996	1,549,860	198,739	1,101,147	164,265	3,703,009	6.80
1909	1,043,494	1,715,808	192,398	1,122,425	289,703	4,363,830	7.83
1910	1,040,773	1,891,333	192,236	1,280,198	125,589	4,530,131	7.89
1911	1,090,402	2,178,855	[4] 349,223	1,274,824	58,195	4,951,499	8.45
1912	1,367,653	2,326,239	([5])	[6] 1,398,699	183,062	5,275,653	8.74

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[1] There seems to have been collected for the fiscal year 1868 the sum of $67,883.97 (Auditor's Report, 1868, p. 43), the unexpended remainder of which was doubtless carried to 1869 and included in the $300,669.63. The figures as here given (1868–1881 inclusive) are from Thompson's Report, 1887–8 (pp. 11–13). They are repeated in the Shinn Reports for 1891–2 and 1893–4. They differ often from the figures in the original reports, but are here given preference, as they are presumed to represent results of a later revision of those figures.

[2] By comparing the original reports it will be found that the balance reported as being on hand at the end of one year on June 30 often differs from the balance on hand at the beginning of the next year on July 1. The balances here used are, when obtainable, those on hand July 1.

[3] From Report for 1881–2, p. 53, Thompson gives $502,456.48.

[4] Includes fines and forfeitures.

[5] This is included in district tax, column 2.

[6] In explanation of this large surplus, Hon. George B. Cook, State superintendent, writes under date of April 25, 1912: "I advise that at the close of the school year ending June 30, 1911, the unexpended balance amounted to $1,441,367.49. Of this amount, however, only $278,757.61 was to the credit of the special school districts, or the districts in towns and cities, and the remainder, or $1,162,609.88, was to the credit of the common-school districts.

"Under our laws only the special school districts may borrow money, issue bonds, etc., and the great majority have done so: therefore, the unexpended balances on hand in these districts may be looked upon as sinking funds or interest funds to take care of these bond obligations.

"This department has no information nor records or reports as to the amount of this indebtedness of the special school districts throughout the State.

"In regard to the common-school districts, since they can not go in debt but may anticipate a tax which has already been levied, it is necessary for such districts to secure a large portion of their building or betterment fund in advance before any extensive improvements are undertaken.

"Again, we have unfortunately no logical division into school districts, the result being that many of the districts are very poor with funds inadequate to support the school while some few have a disproportionately large balance on hand.

"This balance is actual money in the hands of the county treasurers to the credit of the various districts."

TABLE IV.—*School expenditures.*

Years.	Teachers' salaries.	All other expenses.	Total.	Expenditure per capita of average attendance.	Apportionment from common school fund per capita of school population.
1868	....	....	$100.00	....	....
1869	$188,397.00	....	760,468.74	....	....
1870	405,748.37	....		....	....
1871	424,443.97	....	970,306.74	....	....
1872	355,624.90	....		....	....
1873	259,747.08	....	318,997.77	....	....
1874	....	....	....	....	....
1875	....	....	....	....	....
1876	75,399.67	....	119,408.20	....	....
1877	135,121.85	$25,283.07	143,330.82	....	....
1878	121,307.10	8,223.08	148,392.97	....	....
1879	166,647.73	24,859.55	205,448.90	....	$0.73
1880	192,664.64	26,742.60	238,055.68	....	.79
1881	316,893.11	....	388,412.22	....	....
1882	388,616.07	55,332.75	503,856.51	....	....
1883	414,911.12	64,560.33	479,471.45	....	....
1884	441,959.07	45,060.63	576,098.99	....	....
1885	545,168.21	184,000.10	742,870.92	....	....
1886	714,118.11	152,774.34	866,892.45	....	.67
1887	719,597.23	115,450.96	835,048.19	....	.69
1888	790,133.35	111,057.23	901,190.58	....	.81
1889	830,040.76	137,567.84	967,608.60	....	.46
1890	869,899.50	146,876.76	1,016,776.26	....	.70
1891	907,141.59	169,673.75	1,076,815.34	8.71	1.13
1892	987,150.97	172,501.94	1,159,652.91	8.25	.80
1893	1,004,925.85	166,528.61	1,171,454.46	8.03	.78
1894	1,051,608.91	193,209.56	1,244,818.47	7.47	.78
1895	956,241.90	173,990.85	1,130,232.75	6.63	.78
1896	1,054,364.39	178,621.69	1,232,298.08	7.16	.72
1897	1,090,511.30	186,423.70	1,276,935.00	6.46	.76
1898	1,065,287.80	165,014.23	1,230,362.03	6.42	.74
1899	1,121,797.04	170,662.52	1,292,459.56	7.34	.98
1900	1,208,805.10	161,004.63	1,369,809.73	7.01	1.01
1901	1,189,471.91	207,122.70	1,396,594.61	6.98	.98
1902	1,304,655.71	287,454.62	1,592,110.33	7.40	1.09
1903	1,357,268.36	224,647.06	1,581,915.42	7.41	1.07
1904	1,472,652.02	257,226.61	1,729,878.63	8.15	1.10
1905	1,657,877.81	297,550.02	1,955,427.83	9.42	....
1906	1,769,092.19	461,856.79	2,230,948.98	10.41	....
1907	1,973,819.36	439,948.49	2,413,767.85	10.94	1.27
1908	2,022,378.37	514,744.06	2,537,122.43	10.90	1.87
1909	2,509,471.60	605,796.00	3,110,164.60	13.05	1.82
1910	2,708,367.19	478,715.47	3,187,082.66	12.49	2.09
1911	2,966,176.65	543,955.45	3,510,132.10	13.74	....
1912	....	....	3,837,549.08	14.66	2.05

TABLE V.—*Assessed valuation of property.*

Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.
1838	$15,564,000	1875	$91,590,000
1839	23,283,000	1876	93,954,000
1840	22,011,000	1877	86,243,000
1841	24,119,000	1878	89,131,000
1842	22,302,000	1879	85,872,000
1843	21,090,000	1880	90,511,000
1844	19,940,000	1881	99,826,000
1845	20,769,000	1882	94,081,000
1846	21,159,000	1883	126,826,000
1847	27,178,000	1884	132,053,000
1848	28,904,000	1885	134,406,000
1849	33,406,000	1886	139,902,000
1850	34,935,000	1887	148,259,000
1851	42,938,000	1888	156,954,000
1852	41,000,000	1889	172,408,000
1853	53,433,000	1890	174,737,000
1854	63,669,000	1891	180,053,000
1855	65,479,000	1892	174,828,000
1856	61,290,000	1893	173,526,000
1857	88,649,000	1894	173,861,000
1858	100,146,000	1895	174,658,000
1859	122,455,000	1896	175,397,000
1860	120,475,000	1897	177,426,000
1861	....	1898	179,171,000
1862	....	1899	189,999,000
1863	....	1900	201,908,000
1864	....	1901	225,267,000
1865	38,723,000	1902	224,401,000
1866	....	1903	249,779,000
1867	....	1904	261,377,000
1868	....	1905	299,730,000
1869	....	1906	302,181,000
1870	....	1907	328,232,000
1871	....	1908	327,023,000
1872	101,803,000	1909	374,945,000
1873	104,560,000	1910	380,520,000
1874	87,693,000	1911	425,478,000

TABLE VI.—*Apportionment of common school fund, September 2, 1912.*

Amount on hand from various sources July 1, 1912	$36,068.97	
Received from proceeds of 3 mill State tax	1,184,494.27	
Received from State lands (60 and 40)	20.69	
Received from commissioner's sales and redemptions	34.16	
Received from sales of sixteenth section lands	13,919.14	
Received from 3 per cent interest on permanent school fund	34,035.00	
Received from fines, anti-trust suits	15,750.00	
Received from fertilizer fund	8,068.27	
Total	1,292,390.50	
Net amount apportioned ($2.05 per capita)		$1,236,613.30
State aid apportioned to high schools		50,000.00
Correction 1911 apportionment (Howard County)		63.58
Balance in Treasury unapportioned		5,713.62
Total		1,292,390.50
Total enumeration of children, 1912		603,226
Amount apportioned to each child		2.05
Increase in school population over 1911, 3 per cent or		17,477

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INDEX.

A.

Academies, history, 12–23.
Academy of St. Catherine, establishment, 20.
Acts of legislature, education (1843), 31–34; (1849), 36; (1851), 36–37; (1853), 38–41; (1867), 49–50.
Agricultural education, 17, 27, 82, 119–120.
Americanization of Arkansas, 7–10.
Appropriations, schools (1909–10), 81.
Arkansas Journal of Education, history, 58, 109–110.
Arkansas Library Association, history, 114–115.
Arkansas School Journal, history, 68–69, 110.
Arkansas Teachers' Association, history, 109–110.
Arnold, W. H., on educational conditions, 77–78.
Attendance, school, census of 1850, 44–45; (1876), 64; (1907–8), 80; (1868–1912), 123; school, discussion, 69; Hot Springs schools, 92.
Auxiliary educational agencies, 109–115.

B.

Batesville Academy, establishment, 15–16.
Batesville Institute, establishment, 19.
Baxter, Elisha, recognized as legal governor, 59.
Bible, standard in religion and morals, 18.
Bibliography, public school education, 127–128.
Blind, education, 18.
Board of Education for the State of Arkansas, establishment, 33.
Branch Normal School, establishment, 117.
Brown, Jesse, founder of Little Rock Academy, 12.

C.

Calloway, John, teacher, Clark County, 12.
Charters, private schools prior to Civil War, 17–23.
Cherokees, education, 11–12.
Chicot Academy, and public school idea, 17.
Church schools, 11–12.
City school systems, organization (1869–1912), 88–92.
Clarksville Institute, establishment, 18.
Clayton, Gov. Powell, on education, 52.
Coeducational academies, 19.
College of St. Andrew, establishment, 18.
Colored Teachers' Association, 117.
Compulsory attendance acts, 82–83, 120.
Consolidation of rural schools, 82–83.
Constitution of 1836, provision regarding education, 30–31; of 1868, 51–58; of 1874, 59–60.
Conway, E. N., criticism of law of 1843, 32–33.
Conway, Gov. J. S., and common schools, 30–31; on school funds, 26, 43.
Cook, G. B., administration, 80–87; and Hot Springs schools, 92; on educational commission, 120; on educational policy, 113.
Corbin, J. C., and schools for negroes, 117; educational work of, 59; on educational conditions in Arkansas, 117.
Courses of study, high schools, 87; public schools, 78.

D.

Denton, J. L., administration, 67–68; and Arkansas School Journal, 110; and public schools, 67.
Doyne, J. J., administration, 75–76.
Drew, Governor, and educational legislation, 33–34.

E.

Earle, F. R., first superintendent of public instruction, 50.
Eastburn, Moses, teacher, 12.
Education, influence of religion, 22.
Education Commission, history, 112–113.
Educational journals, history, 109–111.
Educational legislation. *See* School laws.
Educational statistics, census of 1840, 44; general, 122–126.
Enrollment, school (1890), 70–71; (1907–8), 80; (1909), 81; (1868–1912), 123; Fort Smith schools, 91; Little Rock, 90.
Expenditures, school (1876), 64; (1902–1904), 76; (1906–7), 80; (1907–8), 80; (1909), 81; Little Rock, 90–91; (1868–1912), 125.
Eureka, schools, organization, 92.

F.

Far West Seminary, history, 18.
Farmers' institutes, work, 119–120.
Fayetteville Female Academy, establishment, 16.
Federal censuses (1840, 1850, 1860), statistics of schools, 44–46.
Fish, J. M., and schools of Little Rock, 90.
Fisher, Prof., on the Branch Normal School, 117.
Forest schools, 14–15.
Fort Smith, public schools, 91–92.
Freedmen's Bureau, schools established, 55; work, 116.
Funds, school. *See* School funds.

G.

Gates, N. P., and Fort Smith schools, 91.
Gatewood, E. L., and Arkansas School Journal, 110.
General Education Board, contributions to education, 120.
Gerstaecker, Frederick, on forest schools, 14.
Greer, David B., on condition of common schools, 44.

H.

Hays, O. V., and Kellogg's Eclectic Monthly, 110.
Helena, public schools, 92.
High schools, 83–84; argument for, 85; classification of, 85; course of study, 87; Little Rock, 91; statistics, 84, 86.
Hill, G. W., administration, 62–66; report on educational conditions, 62–63; report on school system, 64–66.
Hinemon, J. H., administration, 76–80.
Holloway, J. L., and Fort Smith schools, 91.

Home rule, restoration (1874-1894), 59-73.
Hot Springs, schools, organization, 92.

I.

Indian schools, during French and Spanish régimes, 11.
Indians, missionary schools, 11-12.

J.

Jesuits, early schools for instruction of Indians, 11.
Jordan, Junius, administration, 74-75; on educational conditions, 74; on permanent school fund, 107-108.
Journals, educational, history, 109-111.

K.

Kellogg's Eclectic Monthly, history, 110.
Kuykendall, J. W., and Fort Smith schools, 92.

L.

Land funds, State, and public-school system, 24-46.
Legislation, educational. *See* School laws.
Letter of transmittal, 5.
Libraries, activities, 114; circulating, 13.
Lindsey, Caleb, teacher, Lawrence County, 12.
Little Rock, public schools, 89-91.
Little Rock Academy, and Jesse Brown, 12; curriculum, 13-14.
Louisiana Purchase Exposition, educational work of Arkansas, 78.

M.

McIlwain, W. J., and Arkansas School Journal, 110.
Malone, T. B., teacher, 13.
Manual-labor schools, 17.
Mecklin, *Mr.* and *Mrs.*, and school in Washington County, 13.
Mission schools, for Indians, 11-12.
Murphy, Governor, administration (1864-1868), 47-50; on education, 52.

N.

Napoleon Public School, establishment, 17.
Negroes, education, 55; schools, 115-117.
Newspapers, weekly, 45.
Normal schools, appropriation, 79; establishment, 71; expansion and growth, 74-75; negroes, 117.

P.

Peabody fund, and schools for negroes, 117; assistance derived from, 69.
Permanent school fund, history, 103-108.
Pine Bluff, public schools, 92.
Population, statistical view (1722-1910), 8; statistical view of sources (1850-1900), 9-10.
Population, school (1876), 64; (1890), 70-71; (1902-1904), 76; (1906-7), 80; (1909), 81; (1868-1912), 122.
Pratt, Elizabeth, and Spring Hill Female Academy, 13.
Present era (1894-1912), 74-87.
Private schools, prior to Civil War, 11-23.
Property, school (1906-7), 80; (1907-8), 80; (1909), 81; assessed valuation (1868-1912), 126; Fort Smith schools, 91; value, Little Rock, 90.
Public schools, act of 1867, 49-50; and State land funds (1827-1861), 24-46; reports (1854-1861), 41-46; statistics of Federal censuses of 1840, 1850, 1860, 44-46.
See also Chicot Academy.

R.

Reconstruction régime (1868-1874), 51, 58; leading features in school system, 58.
Rector, Gov. H. M., report on condition of common schools, 43-44.
Religion, influence of education, 22.
Reports on schools (1854-1861), 41-46.
Roman Catholics, schools, 18, 20.
Revenue, school (1876), 64; (1909), 81; (1868-1912), 124.
Review and aspirations, 118-125.
Reynolds, J. H., on high schools, 84.
Rightsell, J. R., on public schools of Little Rock, 89.
Rural schools, condition (1905), 78; consolidation, 82-83; needs, 119-120.

S.

St. John's College, establishment, 21.
Salaries, teachers. *See* Teachers, salaries.
Saline fund, history, 101-103.
School attendance. *See* Attendance, school.
School districts, special (1905-6), 77.
School funds, 24-28, 46, 54, 61-62, 81; apportionment (1912), 126; Fort Smith, 91; increase, 119; origin and history of permanent, 93-108.
Schoolhouses (1876), 64; (1905-6), 78; (1868-1912), 122.
School improvement associations, history, 111-112.
School lands, 63-64.
School laws, 30-41, 49-50, 56, 57, 60-61; act of 1849, 36; act of 1851, 36-37; act of 1853, 38-41.
School property. *See* Property, school.
School year, statistics (1868-1912), 122.
Scott, A. M., and school in Little Rock, 13.
Seminary and saline funds, 25-28.
Seminary fund, history, 97-101.
Settlement, French and Spanish, 7.
Shinn, J. H., administration, 70-73; and Arkansas Teacher, 110; on administration of James L. Denton, 67; on condition of public schools, 70-73; on forest schools, 14-15; on reconstruction constitution, 52-53; on school legislation, 59; on sixteenth section fund, 29-30.
Sixteenth section fund, history, 29-30, 93-97.
Smith, Thomas, and Arkansas Journal of Education, 109-110; on educational conditions, 55.
Southern Education Board, activities, 112.
Spring Hill Female Academy, 13.
State Board of Education, establishment, 83; history, 113-114.
State land funds, and public-school system, 24-46.
State superintendents, succession since 1875, 62.
Statistics, school (1876), 64; (1906-7), 80; (1907-8), 80; (1909), 81.
Superintendents, circuit, salaries, 55-56; county, establishment of office, 79-80.

T.

Taxation, school, 46, 50, 54, 61, 73, 79.
Teachers, number (1906-7), 80; (1868-1912), 122; salaries, 55, 64, 77-78, 80-81, 90-91; work of, in early days, 12-14.
Teachers' institutes, 83.
Teachers' reading circle, history, 112.
Textbooks, free, discussion, 69; State (1843), 34-36; uniform, 120.

Thompson, W. E., administration, 67, 69-70; on condition of public schools, 70.
Torreyson, B. W., and Fort Smith schools, 92; and schools of Little Rock, 90; on establishment of high schools, 85-86; on rural schools, 120-121.

W.

Washburn, Cephas, and education of Indians, 11-12; and Far West Seminary, 18.
Weathers, J. R., and Arkansas School Journal, 110.
Weaver, S. M., report on public schools, 43.
Wheatley, Emma, and Fort Smith schools, 91.
Wiener, H. M., teacher, 13.
Witter, Daniel, teacher, 12.
Woodruff, W. E., and circulating library, 13.
World's Columbian Exposition, educational exhibit, Arkansas schools, 72.
Wright, P., and Little Rock Academy, 13-14.

Y.

Yell, Gov. Archibald, and recommendation of agricultural education, 27.

O

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CULTIVATING THE SCHOOL GROUNDS IN WAKE COUNTY NORTH CAROLINA

By ZEBULON JUDD
SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
WAKE COUNTY

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

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GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
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A WORKING BEE AT BAY LEAF SCHOOL.

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ILLUSTRATIONS.

		Page.
Plate 1.	A working bee at Bay Leaf School	Frontispiece.
2A.	New Bay Leaf schoolhouse	6
2B.	Holly Springs Public School	6
3A.	Clearing a school yard	6
3B.	Making a crop for the benefit of the school	6
4A.	Picking cotton on a school farm	8
4B.	A meeting in the interest of the school	8
5A.	Barbecuing chicken	8
5B.	The midday feast at a school-farm working bee	8
6A.	Weighing cotton at the Mount Hope School	10
6B.	Hauling cotton from a school farm to the gin	10

CULTIVATING THE SCHOOL GROUNDS IN WAKE COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA.

THE SCHOOL FARM.

1. *What it is.*—The school farm is a small plat of ground at or near the public schoolhouse, cultivated by a volunteer association, in the interest of the public school. The usual size of the plat is 2 acres, the smallest is 1 acre, the largest 4. These farm plats are usually a part of the school-building site, which varies in size from 2 to 10 acres. In some instances, where there is not enough room on the building site, land is secured from some neighboring farmer, nearly always gratis. Wherever practicable, the board of education purchases additional land for the school farm, where more ground is needed.

2. *How organized.*—Sometimes the farm has been conducted through the organization of the school betterment association. Where there have been no such organizations, interested people have called a meeting, or the county superintendent of public instruction has presented the plan at some general meeting; those willing to cooperate have chosen a school farm superintendent.

3. *How worked.*—The farm superintendent is usually one of the best farmers in the school district. His judgment may be relied upon to fix the time and the frequency of the workings. Consulting as far as practicable the convenience of the members, the superintendent calls them together when there is work to be done. Certain of the work requires only a small number of workers for a short while. For such work the members are called by small groups alternately. Other kinds of work, such as chopping and picking cotton, require a large number of workers. Men, women, youth, and children come together in large crowds, and frequently finish the work in from one to two hours.

4. *What is planted.*—Several considerations determine the choice of what to plant. Preference is given to—

First, the crops best suited to soil and climate, because they give larger money returns, and because teaching the cultivation and harvesting of only such crops has practical value.

Second, those crops the cultivation and harvesting of which lend themselves easily to the labor of women and children.

On the Wake County school farms cotton has been planted more than all other crops combined. Some of the other crops planted have been wheat, peas, potatoes, rye, clover, corn, and tobacco. Tomatoes will be added to the list for the ensuing year.

5. *The purpose.*—The purpose of the school farm is threefold: First, to give the school a new meaning as a factor in the socialization of rural life; second, to vitalize school life by the introduction of new practical sûbjects, or by improving the method of teaching old subjects, or by both; third, to supplement the school fund.

6. *A typical "working" day on a school farm.*—On a crisp October Friday morning there was a quicker movement in the homes of the Enterprise School District. The three-room school building of the consolidated district had just been completed, and the teachers had been in the community several days already. On this particular day all "hands" gathered at the schoolhouse to pick the 4-acre cotton farm for the third and last time. By 9 o'clock the work was well under way. Among the pickers were the new teachers and the county superintendent and the president of the county school betterment association.

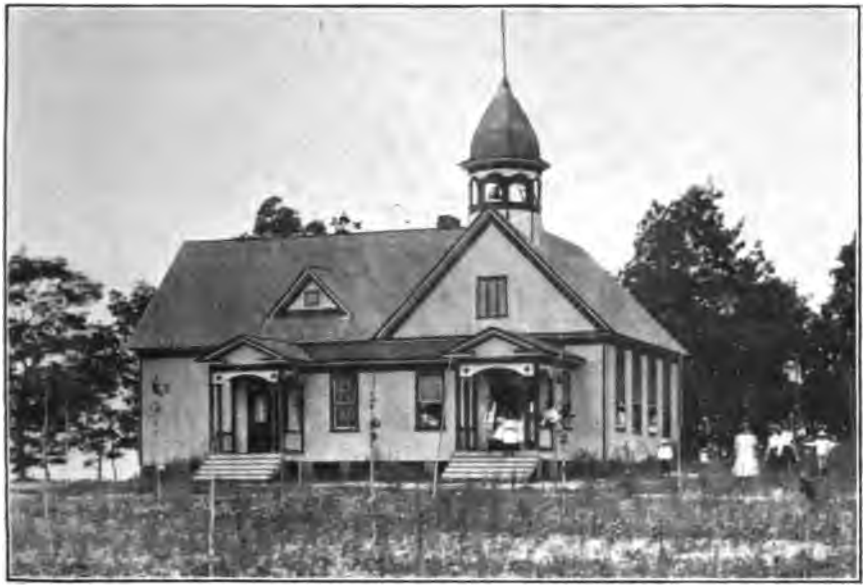
At half past 12 a bountiful dinner of hot brown barbecue and many delicacies was spread on the triangular table in the grove near the schoolhouse. After offering heartfelt thanks for the beautiful new school building, the abundant harvest of snowy white cotton, and the bright, enthusiastic teachers, all of which gave promise of a good school year, the repast was heartily enjoyed by all.

After a little rest the women and children returned to the picking and the men went into the grove to thin out the trees and to clear the ground of brush. These tasks finished, all gathered in the schoolhouse, where a few short spirited talks and some bright prophecies were made, a resolution of thanks to the school-farm superintendent voted, and a resolution passed to meet on the school farm again the following Monday morning to seed the ground in rye.

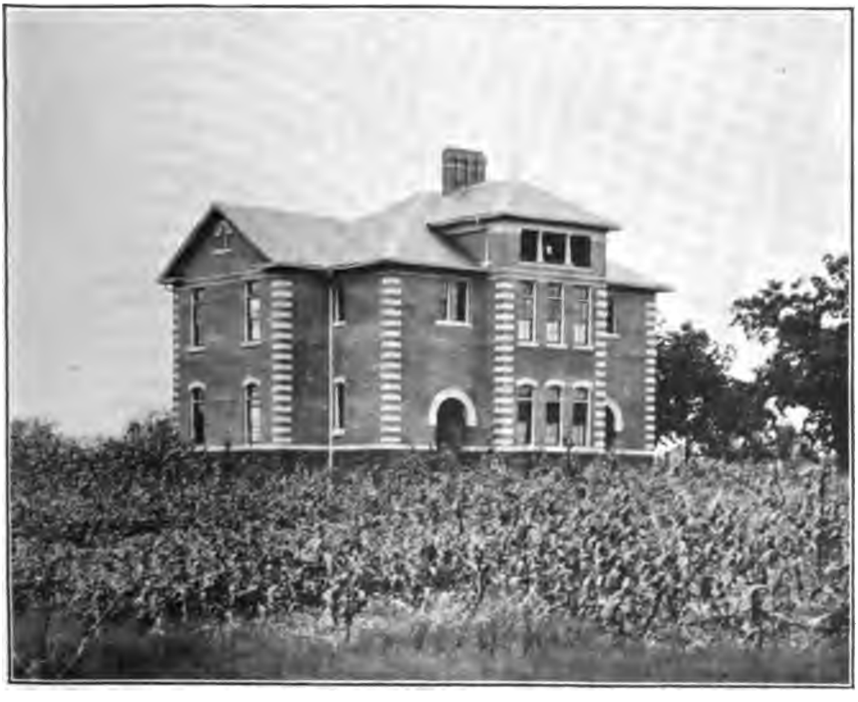
Some of the topics discussed at the school farm meetings are: The value of deep plowing, subsoiling, winter cover crops, the relative merits of fall and winter plowing, the analysis of commercial fertilizers and home-prepared manures, the best methods of selecting seed, the best methods of cultivating growing crops at their various stages of development, variety of soils, insects that harm growing plants, etc.

THEORY OF THE SCHOOL FARM.

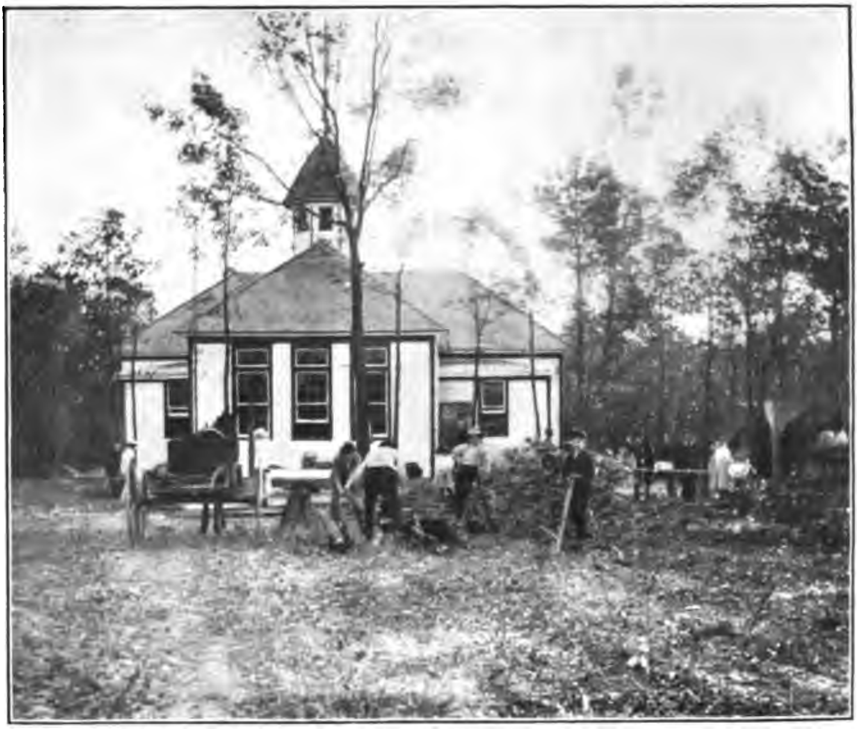
The rural school, nonsectarian, nonpolitical, with its building and library and playground, should be a common rendezvous. Here, under general direction of teacher or some chosen head, children, youth, men, and women should find restful and helpful recreation.



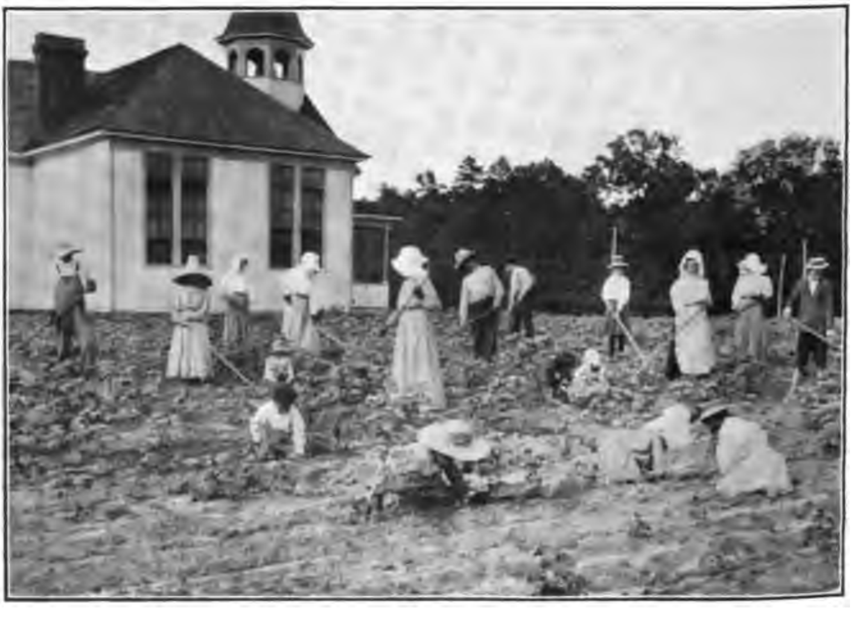
A. NEW BAY LEAF SCHOOLHOUSE.



B. HOLLY SPRINGS PUBLIC SCHOOL.



A. CLEARING A SCHOOL YARD.



B. MAKING A CROP FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE SCHOOL.

In addition to the more formal school work, there should be a definite but easy plan for putting before the community interesting information on current topics and of conducting a course of study with a direct bearing upon domestic and industrial life.

The school farm was conceived to engage the instincts and impulses—human forces—which may be employed through the larger uses of the school plant. It was designed to aid the school in giving to the men and women of the community the opportunity, not to explore new fields, but to find new beauties and new values in the fields where lived their fathers and where they were born.

On one of his visitations among the schools the county superintendent stopped at Holly Springs, where the public school, owning neither house nor shelter, was conducted on the first floor of an old building which once answered to the name of Holly Springs Academy. The year before a few interested men had called an election to levy a special local tax to supplement the annual apportionment from the county. But the conservatives were in large majority. "Lack of faith in the educational process," said the superintendent, "is responsible for this failure on the part of our farmers to support the schools. Moreover, it accounts for the fact that with bounteous barns and comfortable homes these men cause 50 per cent of their children to stop school each year before reaching the third grade."

The superintendent called upon the president of the Holly Springs School Betterment Association and suggested the idea of cultivating 2 acres of a recently purchased 10-acre school site. The president, like the members of her association, was unaccustomed to labor in the fields, and so was somewhat taken aback at the suggestion. However, she promised to refer the matter to the association. She called a special session that evening, and the following day wrote: "The ladies are enthusiastic over the opportunity to do something for the school." Cotton was planted. The work was done in what has since been christened "school farm-working bees," the women and children doing the lighter, the men the heavier work. There was no charge for anything. Even the fertilizer was given. About 2 bales were made, and the crop was sold for $118.28. Holly Springs now has a $7,200 brick school building, four teachers, an eight months' term, three years of high-school work, a domestic-science class of 20 girls, a garden where vegetables are grown for the school kitchen, an active school betterment association, and a school farm increased to 3½ acres.

The next year there was no spread of the new movement. In 1909, 9 farms made $1,152.16; in 1910, 11 farms, $1,021.21; and in 1911, 14 farms, $1,550.20. Last year (1911) the number of persons working on these farms reached the maximum, 2,136.

The movement has enlisted the interest of the people of the county, as is shown by their hearty response and the increased acreage and number of farms. The interest has gone further. The State agricultural society offers each year three prizes of $25, $15, and $10, respectively, for the exhibit at the State fair by public schools showing the best methods of teaching agriculture. Several other counties in the State have adopted the school-farm idea.

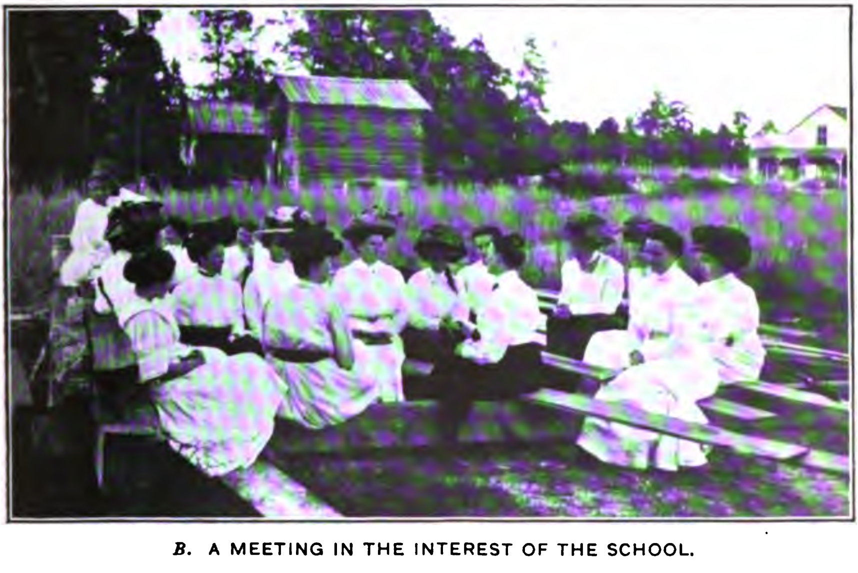
The general purpose of the school farm was indicated at the beginning of this paper. More specifically, the school farm may be regarded as—

1. *A means of increasing the school revenue.*—The rural schools of North Carolina need better buildings, better equipment, longer terms, and better salaries for teachers. These can not be had without more money. In Wake County during the past six years about 50 schoolhouses have been built and equipped, most of them ranging in cost from $2,000 to $15,000. The county board of education usually pays one-half the cost of the buildings, the other half being paid by the school districts. Frequently the committee borrows a part of this sum from the State loan fund. This loan, with 4 per cent interest, is to be paid in 10 equal annual installments. Of the 35 white schools that have borrowed money for building, and would thereby have had their terms shortened, all but one have through volunteer funds made good the deficit and more. At that place the public school was supplemented with a private school. In many cases the salaries allowed by the county have been inadequate, and schools have been unable to pay their half of the necessary equipment. The needed money has been supplied out of these volunteer funds, of which the school farms have been one of the main sources.

2. *A means of socialization.*—On the school farm, where gather men, women, and children of every religious and political faith and of every social stratum, under conditions as nearly normal as possible and with perfect freedom, society is at its fusing point. Here new friendships are made and old ones strengthened. The best thoughts of the community, whether on sewing, cutting, cooking, raising poultry, house decoration, housekeeping in general, gardening, cattle raising, orcharding, farming in general, magazine and newspaper topics, rearing children, morals, or education, are here standardized and stamped as free currency.

3. *A means of teaching.*—Every year thousands of experiments are made at the experiment stations of the State agricultural colleges of our country, testing theories of agricultural practice. Many of the theories tested are found to be useless and untenable. Those that prove of value are printed as bulletins and distributed among our farmers.

A. PICKING COTTON ON A SCHOOL FARM.



B. A MEETING IN THE INTEREST OF THE SCHOOL.

A. BARBECUING CHICKEN.

B. THE MIDDAY FEAST AT A SCHOOL-FARM WORKING BEE.

The question then arises, How can this valuable information be made available to those most in need of it? For the present, and probably for many years to come, a very small per cent of our young men will attend the agricultural colleges. Only the better farmers read the bulletins. How, then, shall the information be brought to the poorer farmer? In this is the opportunity of the school farm.

One of the best read and most successful farmers in the community is chosen to superintend the school farm. The best farm implements in the community are used in preparing the land and in cultivating the crops. The best methods known to the superintendent are employed. The less intelligent and less successful farmer sees the practical and successful application of the best agricultural thought. He comprehends; he goes home; he applies. Thus the school farm with its superintendent becomes the point of contact between the farmer and taxpayer and the agricultural college and experiment station, which are supported by his taxes and for his benefit.

As soon as our revenue from taxes and school farms is sufficient we expect to employ men as principals of schools having farms and to place in their hands the general direction of the farm work. The work will be extended, and wherever practicable pupils will be encouraged to cultivate patches at their homes under the general direction of the principal. At one of the county high schools this plan was followed in 1911. The farm on the school grounds will then afford the means of instruction to the people in mass. On the home patch the pupil will try out for himself what he has learned at school.

4. *An aid to consolidation.*—School patrons need to be informed as to the needs of their school. The school-farm "working bee" affords the medium of communication between patrons and superintendent. Through conferences as to the best methods of operating the school farm, to which many patrons are able to make helpful contributions, and by touching elbows in the middle of the rows, a basis of sympathy and confidence is established. Suggestions of the superintendent thus made are more effective than a platform speech.

The one-room school has been the bane of the country districts. Reform has been difficult because convenience to the schoolhouse has seemed to the patrons worthy of larger consideration than efficiency of instruction. How can the emphasis be replaced if the school superintendent does not know his people and if the people have not learned to have confidence in both his disposition and his ability to direct their schools for their best service?

A "working bee" held jointly by the patrons of two adjoining schools afforded the superintendent a desired opportunity. He addressed the people on the desirability of consolidating these two schools with parts of two other districts, and of building one large school where a richer and a higher course of instruction could be given. The effort was successful and consolidation was accomplished. The movement spread and seven other small schools with a total enrollment of 417 were consolidated into three. In these domestic science and practical farming are taught.

SCHOOL FARM FOR NEGROES.

In the two negro communities where the school farm was tried in 1911 for the first time, there has not been time for large results, but certain improvements are evident.

At Method, where two districts had been consolidated, the work on the school farm created an enthusiasm which aided in allaying feeling created by the consolidation, and two rooms were added to the building for domestic science, and the district's share of the cost was paid out of the farm receipts. The attendance increased from 58 to 89.

At Apex the receipts from the farm became the nucleus of a building fund, one-half of which under the law must be paid by the district, and a three-room building is now under construction. One of the rooms will be used for domestic science. The attendance could not be increased in the old building for lack of room.

At both Method and Apex the school farm is responsible for a healthier school sentiment.

FURTHER DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCHOOL FARM.

The number of school farms should be increased. Every school in the country should have a farm. This could be brought about with some attention and encouragement. An effective presentation of the movement to the people of a community usually results in its adoption. Stereopticon slides would be of great value.

The teaching feature should be strengthened. The school farm should be in every way a demonstration farm. Even in the ordinary rural schools, where a large farm, a barn, a kitchen, and well-equipped domestic science department can not be hoped for, there is no reason why there may not be special days for exhibits, with visiting experts to aid and direct the judging of stock, cattle, milch cows, the Babcock tester, corn and other crops, and also sewing and cooking.

With the aid of revenue from the farm, many of the schools ought to be able to build a teacher's home and to employ a man of broad training to conduct the school and have charge of the farm. He should so understand the life of the community that he could organize it and direct it. Problems of soil preparation, cultivation, drainage, mixing fertilizers, cattle and stock raising, dairying, gardening, canning, cooking, sewing, the care of children, personal hygiene, home sanitation, etc., should be added to the schoolroom topics. These would be particularly fitting for discussion on the public days.

A. WEIGHING COTTON AT THE MOUNT HOPE SCHOOL.

B. HAULING COTTON FROM A SCHOOL FARM TO THE GIN.

For certain phases of the teaching problem experimental plats should be provided. The methods of cultivation and the results from them should be very carefully tabulated. Certain other phases of the problem may be best handled through individual home patches. Here the work should be done under the supervision and direction of the school principal or school-farm superintendent.

Enriching country life and holding the people to the farm are problems in the solution of which the school farm is expected to aid. It has been stated that it is the gregarious instinct in men that causes the herding in cities, and that one of the means of relief is to provide for more frequent, more interesting, and more wholesome assemblages of people in the country. There should be provided in connection with the farm a playground for baseball, croquet, tennis, basket ball, etc., so that at intervals the whole community could come together and enjoy wholesome and helpful recreation.

The three lines of activity already started through the school farm—raising funds, teaching practical farm-life subjects, and socializing country life—need only to be extended and amplified to make the country school an effective means for preparing country boys and girls for a happy and contented life in the country.

Annual reports of Wake County school farms.

Schools.	Superintendents.	Number of acres.	Persons working.	Yield of cotton (pounds).	Cotton seed (bushels).	Value of product.
Year 1907.						
Holly Springs[1]	Mrs. G. B. Alford	2				$118.28
Year 1909.						
Bay Leaf	Geo. B. Norwood	2	67	548	25	88.64
Holly Springs	Mrs. G. B. Alford	2	260	946	46	140.18
J. Y. Joyner	Geo. R. Parker	2	68	586	32	103.90
Cade Springs	L. C. Yeargan	1½	164	425	11	74.01
Rock Spring	Furman Jones	2	300	1,400	80	250.00
Turner	Mr. Sauls	2		(2)		313.50
Mount Moriah	J. F. Pool	2	50	(3)		64.50
Pool	John Stephens	2	50	(4)		28.23
Mount Hope	Jas. Holder	1½	211	580	29	89.20
Total, 9 schools		17	1,170	4,485	223	1,152.16
Year 1910.						
Bonsal	E. P. Wiggs	3	107	700	36	119.50
Holly Springs	Mrs. D. F. Norris	2	155	776	45	134.73
Antioch	J. A. Watkins	2	150	515	25	84.39
Mount Hope	Jas. Holder	1	129	482	25	80.56
Judd Hill	F. J. Duke	2	48	425	24	75.65
Auburn	Russell Powell	2	83	282	17	47.60
Shotwell	L. L. Doub	2	60	300	18	54.00
Bay Leaf	R. C. Davis	2½	58	1,105	63	183.91
Enterprise	Calvin Smith	3½	100	750	45	130.87
Clements	M. Z. Pearce	2	43	350	20	63.00
Wakelon	G. M. Bell	2		(5)		47.00
Total, 11 schools		24	933	5,685	318	1,021.21

[1] Only this school had a farm in 1908, for which no report was made.
[2] 1,562 pounds of tobacco raised.
[3] 60 bushels of corn raised.
[4] 20½ bushels of wheat raised.
[5] 50 bushels potatoes raised.

Annual reports of Wake County school farms—Continued.

Schools.	Superintendents.	Number of acres.	Persons working.	Yield of cotton (pounds).	Cotton seed (bushels).	Value of product.
Year 1911.						
Bonsal	L. E. Rollins	2½	107	700	40	$84.00
Holly Springs	Mrs. G. B. Alford	3	155	1,561	81	186.27
Oak Grove	H. G. Gulley	3½	200	1,474	76	167.92
Mount Hope	Jas. Holder	1¼	104	668	34	77.00
Antioch	J. A. Watkins	2	120	820	45	92.12
Clements	A. H. Shearon	4½	100	1,470	88	187.00
Judd Hill	J. M. Jones	2	100	700	40	80.00
Pinehurst	J. S. Peebles	2	59	550	29	63.26
Shotwell	L. L. Doub	2	40	608	36	75.80
Bay Leaf	H. P. Thompson	2	88	1,244	64	139.76
Turner	J. W. Williams	2	10	(1)	....	46.00
Enterprise	J. E. Franks	3½	240	1,623	96	202.30
Method (colored)	Moses M. Williams	2	773	890	48	102.77
Apex (colored)	Willis Wrancher	1½	40	360	21	46.00
Total, 14 schools		33¾	2,136	12,668	698	1,550.20

[1] 35 bushels corn raised.

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION
BULLETIN, 1912, NO. 29 - - - - - - - - WHOLE NUMBER 503

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS

1900-1912

By DAVID EUGENE SMITH and CHARLES GOLDZIHER

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1912

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

(Titles abridged.)

1906.

No. 1. The education bill of 1906 for England and Wales. Anna Tolman Smith.
No. 2. German views of American education. William N. Hailmann.
No. 3. State school systems, Oct. 1, 1904, to Oct. 1, 1906. E. C. Elliott.

1907.

No. 1. The continuation school in the United States. Arthur J. Jones.
No. 2. Agricultural education. James Ralph Jewell.
No. 3. Auxiliary schools of Germany. B. Maennel. Translated by F. B. Dresslar.
No. 4. The elimination of pupils from school. Edward L. Thorndike.

1908.

No. 1. On the training of persons to teach agriculture. L. H. Bailey.
No. 2. List of publications of the United States Bureau of Education, 1867–1907.
No. 3. Bibliography of education for 1907. J. I. Wyer, jr., and Martha L. Phelps.
No. 4. Music education in the United States. Arthur L. Manchester.
No. 5. Education in Formosa. Julean H. Arnold, American consul at Tamsui.
No. 6. The apprenticeship system. Carroll D. Wright.
No. 7. State school systems, Oct. 1, 1906, to Oct. 1, 1908. E. C. Elliott.
No. 8. Statistics of State universities, etc., 1907–8.

1909.

No. 1. Facilities for study and research in Washington. Arthur T. Hadley.
No. 2. Admission of Chinese students to American universities. John Fryer.
No. 3. Daily meals of school children. Caroline L. Hunt.
No. 4. The teaching staff of secondary schools. Edward L. Thorndike.
No. 5. Statistics of public, society, and school libraries in 1908.
No. 6. Instruction in the fine and manual arts. Henry Turner Bailey.
No. 7. Index to the Reports of the Commissioner of Education, 1867–1907.
No. 8. A teacher's professional library. Classified list of 100 titles.
No. 9. Bibliography of education for 1908–9.
No. 10. Education for efficiency in railroad service. J. Shirley Eaton.
No. 11. Statistics of State universities, etc., 1908–9.

1910.

No. 1. Reform in teaching religion in Saxony. Arley Barthlow Show.
No. 2. State school systems, Oct. 1, 1908, to Oct. 1, 1909. E. C. Elliott.
No. 3. List of publications of the United States Bureau of Education, 1867–1910.
No. 4. The biological stations of Europe. Charles Atwood Kofoid.
No. 5. American schoolhouses. Fletcher B. Dresslar.
No. 6. Statistics of State universities, etc., 1909–10.

1911.

No. 1. Bibliography of science teaching.
No. 2. Opportunities for graduate study in agriculture. A. C. Monahan.
No. 3. Agencies for the improvement of teachers in service. William C. Ruediger.
No. 4. Report of the commission to study the public schools of Baltimore.
No. 5. Age and grade census of schools and colleges. George Drayton Strayer.
No. 6. Graduate work in mathematics in universities.

(Continued on p. 3 of cover.)

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CONTENTS.

Page.

Preface.. 5

List of abbreviations.. 7

I. General topics relating to the teaching of mathematics................ 9

II. Mathematics in the elementary schools................ 24

III. Mathematics in the secondary schools................ 25

IV. Mathematics in the technical schools................ 37

V. Mathematics in the colleges and universities................ 39

VI. The teaching of arithmetic................ 41

VII. The teaching of algebra................ 46

VIII. The teaching of geometry................ 49

IX. The teaching of trigonometry................ 58

X. The teaching of analytic geometry................ 59

XI. The teaching of the calculus................ 60

XII. The teaching of descriptive geometry and geometrical drawing....... 64

XIII. The value and the teaching of graphs................ 66

XIV. The teaching of logarithms and the slide-rule................ 69

XV. The introduction of the function concept................ 71

XVI. The question of correlation and the applications of mathematics...... 72

XVII. The value of the history of mathematics in teaching................ 80

XVIII. Preparation of teachers of mathematics................ 81

Index.. 87

PREFACE.

Among teachers of mathematics throughout the world there has recently been manifested a notable increase of interest in all educational work. This interest is due in part to the present general agitation in every educational line, in part to the influence of such related departments as physics, in part to the increased demands of industry, and in part to the activities of the International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics. One result of this interest is a great increase in the literature of the teaching of mathematics, and it seems desirable to present at this time what is at least a beginning toward a bibliography of the subject.

This bibliography has been prepared in part by Professor Charles Goldziher, of Budapest, Hungary, and in part by the writer. Professor Goldziher is a member of various learned societies, a privatdocent at the Polytechnikum at Budapest, the secretary of the Hungarian Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics, and a professor in the State Paedagogium at Budapest. He prepared an extensive bibliography of the recent teaching of mathematics while working at the University of Göttingen, and from this have been made such selections as seemed best to meet the needs of readers, and to it has been added a large number of titles, especially English and American.

The plan has been to include articles on the teaching of mathematics that have appeared since January, 1900, in the various periodicals to which teachers may have access, and to mention works that relate directly to the teaching of mathematics that have been published since that date, but to exclude textbooks. The work will be seen to fall somewhat short of its purpose in that it has been impossible for the authors, in the time at their disposal, to examine all of the literature in the various countries. Nevertheless, it has seemed best, in view of the approaching International Congress of Mathematicians of 1912, to make a beginning of this nature, to the end that others may have a basis upon which to work and that those who wish immediate information upon the literature of the subject may have material at hand to assist them.

The authors desire to recognize the debt they owe to Miss Caroline E. Seely, of New York, in the arduous labor of arranging the material.

David Eugene Smith.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.

Assoc. Franç. de Grenoble. (Association Française de Grenoble.)

Baseler Verhandlungen. (Verhandlungen der 49. Versammlung deutscher Philologen und Schulmänner in Basel, 1907. Leipzig, 1908.)

Bay. Zschr. für Realschulw. (Bayrische Zeitschrift für Realschulwesen.)

Blätter für Gymn. Schulw. (Blätter für das Gymnasial Schulwesen.)

Blätter höh. Schulw. (Blätter für das höhere Schulwesen.)

Boll. dell'Assoc. Mathesis. (Bolletino dell'Associazione Mathesis.)

Boll. Mat. (Il Bolletino di Matematica.)

Bull. de la Soc. Franç. de Philosophie. (Bulletin de la Société Française de Philosophie.)

Bull. des Sciences Math. (Bulletin des Sciences mathématiques.)

Bull. des Sci. Math. Elém. (Bulletin des Sciences mathématiques et physiques élémentaires.)

Bull. Soc. Math. (Bulletin de la Société mathématique de France.)

Congr. dei Prof. di Mat. (Congresso dei Professori di Matematica.)

Congr. fra i prof. di mat. delle scuole medie italiane promosso dall' Assoc. Mathesis. (Congresso fra i professori di matematica delle scuole medie promosso dall' Associazione.)

Congr. Int. dei Mat., Roma. (Congresso internazionale dei matematici, Roma.)

Congr. Int. des Math. (Congrès International des Mathématiciens.)

Das Hum. Gymn. (Das Humanistische Gymnasium.)

Encykl. der Math. Wissensch. (Encyclopädie der Mathematischen Wissenschaften.)

Jahresber. D. M. V. (Jahresbericht der Deutschen Mathematiker Vereinigung.)

Klein's Abhandlungen. (Abhandlungen über den mathematischen Unterricht in Deutschland, veranlasst durch die Internationale Mathematische Unterrichts-Kommission. Herausgegeben von F. Klein.)

Korrespondenzblatt. (Korrespondenzblatt für die Höheren Schulen Württembergs.)

Középisk. Math. Lapok. (Középiskolai Mathematikai Lapok. Ungarische math. Schülerzeitung.)

Lehrp. und Lehrg. (Lehrproben und Lehrgänge.)

L'Ens. Math. (L'Enseignement Mathématique.)

Magy. Paed. (Magyar Paedagogia.)

Math. Natw. Blätter. (Mathematisch-naturwissenschaftliche Blätter.)

Neue Jahrb. (Neue Jahrbücher.)

Nouv. Annales de Math. (Nouvelles Annales de Mathématiques.)

O. K. T. K. (Országos Középiskolai Tanáregyesületi Közlöny. Berichte der Ungar. Mittelschulprofessorenvereinigung.)

Österr. Mittelschule. (Österreichische Mittelschule.)

Päd. Arch. (Pädagogisches Archiv.)

Päd. Bausteine. (Pädagogische Bausteine.)

Päd. Blätter. (Pädagogische Blätter.)

Päd. Jahrb. (Pädagogisches Jahrbuch.)

Päd. Psych. Studien. (Pädagogische Psychologische Studien.)

Päd. Sammlung. (Pädagogische Sammlung.)

Ped. Tidskr. (Pedagogisk Tidskrift.)

Phys. Zschr. (Physikalische Zeitschrift.)

Polgárisk. Közl. (Polgáriskolai Közlöny. Berichte für Ungar. Bürgerschulen.)
Preuss. Jahrb. (Preussische Jahrbücher.)
Rev. de l'Ens. des Sciences. (Revue de l'Enseignement des Sciences.)
Schriften der physikal.-ökonom. Gesellschaft zu Königsberg. (Schriften der physikalisch-ökonomischen Gesellschaft zu Königsberg.)
Schweiz. Päd. Zschr. (Schweizerische Pädagogische Zeitschrift.)
Sitzungsber. der Berliner Math. Gesellschaft. (Sitzungsberichte der Berliner mathematischen Gesellschaft.)
Unterrichtsblätter. (Unterrichtsblätter fur Mathematik und Naturwissenschaften.)
Verhandl. der G. D. N. u. Ä. (Verhandlungen der Gesellschaft Deutscher Naturforscher und Ärzte.)
Verhandl. des III. Int. Math. Congr. in Heidelberg. (Verhandlungen des III. Internationalen Mathematiker Congresses in Heidelberg.)
Weekblad for Gymn. en Midd. Ond. (Weekblad voor Gymnasiaal en Middelbaar Onderwijs.)
Zschr. des Ver. deutscher Ing. (Zeitschrift des Vereines deutscher Ingenieure.)
Zschr. für das gesamte kaufmänn. Unterrichtsw. (Zeitschrift für das gesamte kaufmännische Unterrichtswesen.)
Zschr. für das Gymnasialw. (Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen.)
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Zschr. für das Realschulw. (Zeitschrift für das Realschulwesen.)
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Zschr. für lateinlose höhere Schulen. (Zeitschrift für lateinlose höhere Schulen.)
Zschr. für Math. und Phys. (Zeitschrift für Mathematik und Physik.)
Zschr. für Phil. und Päd. (Zeitschrift für Philosophie und Pädagogik.)
Zschr. für Weibliche Bildung. (Zeitschrift für Weibliche Bildung.)
Zschr. gewerbl. Unt. (Zeitschrift für gewerblichen Unterricht.)
Zschr. Lehrmittelwesen und päd. Literatur. (Zeitschrift für Lehrmittelwesen und pädagogische Literatur.)
Zschr. math. natw. Unt. (Zeitschrift für mathematischen und naturwissenschaftlichen Unterricht.)
Zschr. phys. chem. Unt. (Zeitschrift für physikalischen und chemischen Unterricht.)

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INDEX.

A.

Ackermann, C., 896.
Ács, L., 1341.
Adamicka, M., 656.
Adhémar, R., 833.
Adler, A., 1, 987, 1342.
Afnassjewa-Ehrenfest, T., 988.
Ahrendt, H., 1548.
Alasia, C., 414.
Albrecht, J., 1549.
Albrich, K., jr., 415, 416, 1522, 1550.
Albricht, K., 1522.
ALGEBRA, 896–986.
Allen, F., 417.
Amaddii, I., 756.
American Mathematical Society, 418.
Amieux, *Mlle.*, 419.
Andrade, J., 2, 268, 274, 989–990.
André, D., 1400.
Antal, M., 1523.
Apel, O., 3.
Appell, P., 4, 381, 991, 1551–1554.
APPLICATIONS OF MATHEMATICS, 1548–1738.
Arany, D., 657.
Arbes, J., 1482–1484.
Archenhold, F. S., 5.
ARITHMETIC, 755–895.
Aridt, 1746.
Arndt, 1043.
Ascoli, M., 1555.
Ashford, C. E., 695.
Association of Public School Science Masters, 1664.
Association Suisse de Professeurs de Mathématiques, 6–7.
Atmanspacher, O., 757.
Aubert, J., 1485.
Ayné, P., 1401.

B.

Babb., M. J., 422, 758.
Badertscher, 423.
Bailey, M. A., 760.
Baker, A. L., 9, 897, 993–998.
Balás, G., 10.
Ball, W. W. R., 719.
Ballard, P. B., 382, 898.
Balser, L., 999.
Bandini, S., 761.
Bartram, H., 1557.
Bass, W., 424.
Baud, 425.
Baudeuf, H., 1000.
Bauernberger, A., 1486.
Baumgartner, A., 1242.
Beard, W. F., 11.
Beardsley, R. S., 1001.
Beck, K., 12.
Becker, V., 13.
Beischer, K., 1254.
Beke, M., 15–18, 383, 426, 762, 1255, 1748.
Beman, W. W., 1002, 1402.
Benesch, R., 1256.
Berak, J., 1749.
Bérard, R., 1403.
Berdellé, C., 19, 763.
Bergmann, F., 427, 1560.
Bernstein, J., 429.
Bertola, G., 764.
Bettazzi, R., 432, 1404, 1562.
Bettini, B., 22.
Betz, W., 1003–1005, 1405.
Beuriger, J., 1006.
Beyel, Chr., 1343–1344.
Biklé, C. E., 9, 899.
Bioche, Ch., 383, 433.
Bishop, F. L., 1564.
Blakslee, T. M., 24, 1406.
Bleucke, Fr., 1345.
Blum, R., 1007.
Blutel, E., 434, 721, 1258–1259.
Bobynin, V., 26–27, 435, 722.
Bodenstedt, H., 1346–1347.
Böcher, M., 730.
Bochow, K., 1260.
Bock, A., 409, 1750.
Bode, P., 436.
Boehm, E., 28.
Bognár, P. C., 1348.
Bogner, 1349.
Bogyó, S., 675.
Bohle, G., 437.
Böhme, B., 1751.
Bond, W. E., 1008.
Bonnesen, T., 29, 438.
Boon, F. C., 1408.
Borchardt, P., 765.
Borel, E., 268, 274, 439, 724, 1009.
Borgmeyer, J., 1010.
Böttcher, L., 440–441.
Böttger, W., 442.
Bourlet, C., 444, 1011–1013.
Bozóky, E., 901, 1014.
Brand, E., 1409.
Brandenberger, K., 445.
Branford, B., 766.
Braunschweig, R., 1739.
Breckenridge, W. E., 30, 1566.
Bremiker, H., 902.
British Association Committee on the Teaching of Mathematics, 31.
Brocke, E., 32–33, 903, 1015.

Brookman, T., 446.
Broomell, B. L., 34, 1740.
Brown, E. E., 447.
Brown, E. W., 1567.
Brown, F. B., 448.
Brown, J. C., 768.
Browne, C. E., 769.
Bruce, G. A., 9.
Brucher, K., 770.
Bručs, M., 904.
Brun, F., 385.
Bruns, P., 771.
Bryan, G. H., 1262, 1752.
Büchel, W., 1410.
Buchrucker, B., 35, 1263, 1568.
Buffa, P., 1016.
Buhl, A., 725.
Bühler, 772
Buhlmann, B., 36.
Burger, Ch., 449.
Burstall, S. A., 37.
Busse, M., 1569.
Bütler, K., 1264.
Buttner, A., 773.
Buyse, O., 38.

C.

Cailler, C., 774.
Cajori, F., 905, 1411.
CALCULUS, 1254–1340.
Campbell, J., 39.
Capelli, A., 906.
Cardinaal, J., 40–41.
Carson, G. St. L., 1017.
Carver, W. B., 451.
Castelli, G., 1570.
Cauer, P., 1753.
Central Association, 907.
Chabot, C., 1754.
Chase, H. J., 1018–1019.
Chatelet, A., 1020, 1755.
Chatelier, H., 660.
Chénard, H., 1021.
Chevalier, 1022.
Chiari, A., 775.
Child, J. M., 1024.
Ciamberlini, C., 42, 776, 1571.
Cikot, C. A., 1026.
Clairaut, A. C., 1027.
Clark, C. A., 1572.
Clarke, J. B., 453.
Coar, H. L., 43, 1756.
Cobb, H. E., 44–45, 1573.
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 719–754.
Collins, J. V., 46–48, 777, 908, 1574.
Combet, E., 454, 1222.
Combebiac, C., 1028.
Commission Internationale de l'Enseignement des Mathématiques, 49.
Committee on the Unification of Mathematics, 50.
Comstock, C. E., 51, 455, 1575.
Condit, I. S., 52.
Congresso della "Mathesis," Società Italiana di Matematica, 54.
Congresso die Professori di Matematica, 55.
Congresso Internationale dei Matematici, 56.
Conti, A., 72, 456, 1757–1758.
Coolidge, J. L., 58.
Cornet, L., 1268.
Cornish, W. A., 909.
CORRELATION AND APPLICATIONS OF MATHEMATICS. 1548–1738.
Corte, D., 457.
Cosamassima, M., 778.
Courcot, A., 1412.
Cramer, A., 58.
Cramer, F., 458.
Cramer, H., 409, 459.
Crawford, L., 387.
Crelier, L., 661, 1350.
Csada, I., 59, 779–780.
Csallóközi, J., 460.
Cubberly, E. P., 145.
Curtis, A. M., 910.
Czakó, A., 1577.
Czuber, E., 61, 662, 1269, 1762.

D.

Dahlgren, H., 389.
Dalwigk, F. von, 1578.
Danielewicz, B., 911.
Daninger, J., 62, 461, 1579.
Dankwortt, A., 63.
Dannemann, F., 1764.
Darboux, G., 1581.
Darnell, A., 1413.
Darnet, L., 781.
Dausat, 64.
Davis, E. W., 964.
Dean, P., 913.
Deckars, R., 782.
Dékány, M., 1765.
Delitala, G., 1223.
Deny, L., 1414.
Dewey, J., 1030.
Dickson, L. E., 1415.
Diekmann, J., 914, 1031.
Dietrich, M., 1032.
Dietsch, C., 1033.
Dietz, C., 462.
Dintzl, E., 463–464, 1224, 1524.
Dittrich, E., 68.
Ditzel, H., 465.
Dobbs, W. J., 1488.
Doerge, O., 1034.
Doležal, E., 1416.
Dolinski, M., 663.
Donecker, F. C., 916.
Dooley, W. H., 785.
Doolittle, F. W., 1421.
Dougall, J., 1418.
DRAWING, GEOMETRICAL, 1341–1399.
Dressler, H., 390, 917, 1035, 1525, 1582, 1766.
Ducrue, J., 1036, 1352.
Dumas, H., 466.
Dunker, K., 1583–1584.
Durand, A., 1037.
Durrell, C. V., 786, 1244.
Durrell, F., 918, 1038–1040.
Düsing, K., 69, 1271.

E.

Ebner, F., 467, 1272–1273.
Eckhardt, E., 919.

Eggar, W. D., 1585-1586.
Ehrenfest, T., 988.
Ehrig, G., 664.
Eickhoff, R., 1767.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 381-413
Emch, A., 1587.
Engelhardt, P., 1420.
Epps, F., 787.
Epstein, S., 1421.
Erikson, G., 665.
Enriques, F., 72, 728.
Erdmann, 1043.
Erdmann, R., 468.
Erdős, L., 73.
Escherich, G., 729, 1768.
Evans, G. W., 473, 542, 920, 1044-1045, 1422.

F.

Fabinger, F., 1046.
Fack, M., 76.
Faragó, A., 77-78, 474, 1047.
Färber, C., 788.
Faulland, J., 922, 1590.
Fazzari, G., 789.
Fehr, H., 80-85, 475-476, 1048, 1526-1527, 1769.
Fick, A., 1591.
Fick, E., 790.
Ficquet, M., 477, 1049.
Field, F., 87.
Filon, L. N. G., 1592.
Finsterbusch, J., 1050.
Fischer, K. T., 1593, 1771.
Fiser, P. R., 1245.
Fiske, T. S., 74.
Flatt, R., 478.
Flegel, W., 1353.
Fochtmann, 1051.
Fontené, G., 89.
Förster, W., 1594.
Forsyth, A. R., 1595.
Forth, C. J., 90.
Francis, W. A., 1052, 1596.
Frank, H., 1274.
Franz, J., 1257.
French, J. S., 91, 480-481.
Frenzel, C., 1276.
Freud, Ph., 482.
Fricke, F., 1225.
Fricke, K., 1597, 1772.
Fricke, R., 92.
Friedel, V. H., 1773.
Friemel, R., 1598.
Fries, W., 1774.
Frischauf, J., 791, 1053.
Frixon, H., 666.
Fröhlich, K., 146, 792.
Füger, J., 483.
FUNCTION CONCEPT, INTRODUCTION OF, 1522-1547.
Furtwängler, P., 667.

G.

G., C., 1054.
Gaffney, M. A., 1055.
Gajdeczka, J., 1776.
Galdéano, Z. G., 94-99, 1599.
Gale, A. S., 391, 484.
Gallander, O., 1423.
Gallucci, G., 485-486.
Garbieri, G., 274.
Gaubatz, M., 1354-1355.
Gauss, A., 793.
Gebhardt, M., 1741-1742.
Geck, E., 409, 487.
Gehrig, H., 392.
Geiger, K., 794.
Geissler, K., 100-102, 1528-1529, 1600.
Gendame de Bévotte, 1778.
GENERAL TOPICS, 1-380.
Genese, R. W., 923.
GEOMETRY, 987-1221.
GEOMETRY, ANALYTIC, 1242-1253.
GEOMETRY, DESCRIPTIVE, 1341-1399.
Gérard, L., 103.
Gercken, W., 489, 1356.
Geissler, K., 1528-1529.
Gerhardt, R., 1601-1602.
Gerlach, A., 795, 1056.
Gheury, M. E. J., 105.
Gibson, G. A., 106.
Giebel, K., 492, 1603.
Gille, A., 1057.
Girndt, M., 669.
Glauer, R., 1226, 1489.
Glauner, Th., 1604.
Glenn, O. E., 1424.
Göbelbecker, L. F., 796.
Godfrey, C., 107-108, 171, 924-925, 1058-1059.
Goering, W., 1530.
Goldziher, C., 109-116, 146, 670, 797-798, 926-927, 1425-1430, 1605-1606, 1779.
Goller, 493, 1780.
Goodrich, M. F., 928.
Göransson, E., 117-119, 494-495, 504.
Götting, E., 143, 496-497.
Gottschalk, A., 328.
Gouilly, A., 1607.
Goy, P. de, 1431.
Graf, J. H., 731.
Graham, E., 498.
GRAPHS, VALUE AND TEACHING OF, 1400-1481.
Grave, W., 121.
Greenhill, *Sir* G., 1608.
Greenstreet, W. J., 740.
Greenwood, G. W., 929, 1060-1065.
Grévy, A., 122.
Grimm, O., 799.
Grosse, W., 1432, 1609-1610.
Grossmann, M., 123, 671, 1066.
Grothmann, H., 1357.
Grühl, P., 930.
Grünbaum, H., 672.
Grunewald, W., 1358.
Guadagno, P., 124.
Gubler, S. E., 500.
Guerritore, G., 1611.
Guldberg, A., 125.
Günther, S., 126.
Gutzmer, A., 127-130, 733, 1612, 1781, 1794.
Guyon, E., 800.
Gwatkin, E. R., 501.

H.

Haacke, C., 801.
Haacke, F., 1067, 1278-1279.
Haage, K., 1359.

Haas, M., 1068.
Habán, M., 1280.
Häbler, Th., 1227.
Hack, 1531.
Hadamard, J., 131, 1613.
Haentzschel, E., 1069.
Haese, 673.
Haeseler, O., 503.
Haffner, G., 1070.
Hagström, K. L., 674.
Haidl, H., 931.
Hall, E. H., 1614.
Hallgren, E., 504.
Halsted, G. B., 1071, 1615.
Hamilton, J. G., 1072.
Hammer, E., 1490.
Harper, G. A., 1616.
Hart, C. A., 1073.
Hart, H. F., 802, 1074–1075.
Hartmann, B., 803.
Haskins, C. N., 691.
Hasse, W., 505.
Hatzidakis, N. J., 734.
Hauck, G., 1617.
Havas, M., 676.
Hawkes, H. E., 132, 735, 1076.
Hawkins, C., 133.
Hayashi, T., 1433.
Heaviside, O., 134.
Hecht, C., 506.
Hecht, W., 1618.
Heck, R. C. H., 1434.
Heckscher, I., 135.
Hedgepeth, V. W. B., 804.
Hedrick, E. R., 805, 932–933, 1077.
Heffter, L., 1281.
Heininger, 806.
Heinrich, M., 1078–1079.
Hellweger, M., 1080.
Hensing, H., 409.
Hermes, J., 1619.
Herting, G., 1282.
Heumann, C., 677.
Hiemesch, R. H., 807.
Hill, M. J. M., 1081.
Hinckley, F. C., 1491.
Hioux, V., 1082.
Hobson, E. W., 136–137.
Hočevar, F., 808, 1283.
Höckner, G., 1622.
Hoefinghoff, E., 138.
Höfler, A., 139–141, 507–510, 1624, 1783.
Hoffmann, B., 1623.
Hogben, G., 1083.
Hohlstein, P., 1361.
Holmes, H. I., 142.
Holzmüller, G., 143, 1284–1285, 1784.
Hoppe, E., 1286.
Horn, E., 511.
Hornig, 512.
Hossfeld, C., 513.
Hovestadt, H., 159, 815.
Hubbes, H., 1287.
Huber, 1625.
Huguenard, E., 809.
Hume, A., 514.
Huntington, E. V., 678.
Hurst, G. H. G., 1626.

I.

International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics, Committees nos. I and II, 400; Committees nos. III and IV, 542; Committee no. V, 1841; Committee no. VI, 691; Committee no. VII, 74; Committee no. VIII, 145; Committee no. IX, 692; Committee no. X, 750; Committee no. XI, 690; Committee no. XII, 729.

J.

Jackman, W. S., 147.
Jackson, C. S., 148, 810, 1492, 1627.
Jackson, D. C., 1628.
Jackson, L. L., 811.
Jackson, W. H., 1084.
Jacob, J., 1768.
Jacobs, A., 1629.
Jacquemir, A., 1630.
Jahn, O., 812.
Jahnke, E., 679.
Jamieson, W. R., 1631.
Janisch, W., 1085–1086, 1228.
Jansen, O., 934.
Johanneson, P., 1632.
Jones, F. T., 150, 935.
Josephson, O., 596, 1532, 1786.
Jourdain, P. E. B., 151.
Joxe, A., 152.
Juckel, Gy., 153, 813–814.
Jung, P., 1633.
Junge, G., 154–155, 1493, 1634.

K.

Kabisch, O., 1787.
Kántor, N., 1288.
Kármán, T., 156, 680.
Karpinski, L., 157.
Keferstein, H., 936.
Kelemen, I., 1088.
Kemlein, G., 1089, 1247.
Kendall, C. N., 400.
Kerschensteiner, G., 409.
Kewitsch, G., 1289.
Keyser, C. J., 158.
Killing, W., 159, 815.
Kinkaid, E. M., 1635.
Kirchberger, R., 816, 1362.
Kiseljak, M., 938.
Kissel, F., 1636.
Kleefstra, J., 1637.
Klein, F., 160, 517–520, 736–737, 1638–1645, 1789–1794.
Kleinpeter, H., 161, 521–522, 939, 1090, 1795.
Klug, J., 162.
Klug, R., 1091.
Knabe, K., 163.
Knabl, E., 1646.
Kobalt, E., 682.
Koch, E. H., 164.
Koch, H. von, 683.
Koch, W., 1092.
Koeppner, K., 1248.
Kolhtsch, A., 817.
Kollros, L., 165.
Kondratiev, V., 523.
Konrath, Th., 524, 1796.
Kopp, L., 1093.
Kosmik, K., 1094.

Kraus, K., 397, 818.
Krause, M., 525, 1797.
Krebs, W., 1798.
Kretzschmar, J. F., 526.
Kreuschmer, R., 1229.
Krimphoff, W., 1647.
Krollik, H., 527.
Kronke, F., 1363.
Krug, 940.
Krüse, K., 941.
Kubassa, C., 1290.
Kühn, F., 819, 1095.
Kuhn, I., 1435.
Kühnemann, F., 166.
Kullrich, E., 1096, 1364, 1494.
Kürschák, J., 1799.

L.

Lacombe, M., 684.
Laisant, C. A., 167–170, 685, 1097, 1291.
Langley, E. M., 171.
Langlois, C. V., 1800.
Lanner, A., 172, 820, 1230.
Laparevicz, A., 1648.
Lasher, W. R., 1098.
Lazzeri, G., 686.
Lechnitczky, G., 173.
Lefèvre, A., 1099.
Lehmer, D. N., 174.
Lehrfeldt, R. A., 1436.
Lémeray, E. M., 1292.
Lemoine, J., 1649.
Lengauer, J., 176.
Lennes, N. J., 942–943, 1100–1101, 1437.
Lesser, O., 1438, 1533.
Lessing, Th., 177.
Levi, B., 178.
Lexis, W., 179.
Leygues, 180.
Liard, L., 1102, 1650–1651.
Lietzmann, W., 181–186, 398, 529–531, 821–822, 1103–1106, 1652–1655, 1804.
Liewald, K., 1107.
Lilienthal, R. von, 738, 1656.
Liman, O., 532.
Lindemann, F., 187.
Lissák, J., 944, 1495.
Lodge, O., 188.
Löffler, E., 189, 1108.
LOGARITHMS AND THE SLIDE RULE, 1482–1521.
Lóky, B., 534.
London. Board of Education, 1108.
Long, E., 1657.
Loomis, H. B., 945.
Loos, J., 190, 1805.
Lopič, P. J., 824.
Lörcher, A., 1110.
Lorenz, H., 1658.
Lorenz, K., 825.
Lorey, W., 191, 535–536, 739, 826, 1231, 1293–1296, 1806.
Loria, G., 192–194, 268, 274, 537–538.
Low, D. A., 688.
Luckhaub, G., 1297.
Ludwig, F., 1659.
Lytle, E. B., 1111.

M.

Macaulay, F. S., 740.
McCormack, T. J., 196.
McDill, R. N., 946.
Mach, A., 1660.
Mach, E., 195.
McIntosh, J., 1661.
Mack, K., 1112.
McKelden, A. M., 947.
McKinney, T. K., 948.
McLeed, C., 1496.
McMurry, C. A., 826.
McMurry, F. M., 403.
McPherron, J. M., 1113.
Maestro, T., 689.
Mahistre, G., 197.
Makchéev, M., 1807.
Mállу, F., 539.
Maltson, R., 1534.
Mannheim, A., 1114.
Mannowry, G., 198.
Marjanek, A., 949.
Marotte, F., 199, 268, 540, 1115, 1439, 1662–1663.
Martin, P., 1116–1117.
Massau, J., 1365.
Mathematical Association, 200–201, 1664.
Matter, K., 693
Maurer, A., 1665.
Mayer, 204.
Mayer, T. E., 1497.
Mehmke, R., 828, 1440.
Meissner, O., 1366.
Meldau, H., 709.
Mende, J., 829.
Mendelssohn, V., 1535.
Méray, C., 205, 1118–1120.
Mercer, J. W., 695.
Messineo-Cantarella, S., 830.
Mettler, H., 1441.
Metzler, W. H., 206–208.
Mevius, W., 209.
Meyer, A., 119.
Meyer, E., 543, 1498.
Meyer, Fr., 544.
Meyer, U., 211.
Mikola, S., 18, 212–214, 426, 831, 1667.
Mikuta, A., 696.
Milankowitsch, M., 1442.
Milarch, E., 1298–1299, 1499.
Miller, G. A., 215–218, 1121, 1743, 1809.
Millis, J. F., 950, 1668–1669.
Milne, R. M., 1443.
Milthaler, J., 546.
Minchin, G. M., 1122.
Mineur, P., 1500.
Misar, W., 219.
Missouri Society of Teachers of Mathematics and Science, 951.
Mittag, M., 1444.
Mollberg, 548.
Möller, M., 832.
Molnár, E., 1300.
Montessus, R. de, 833.
Moore, E. H., 1445.
Moore, M. E., 1810.
Mootschek, W. de, 220.

Morawetz, J., 834, 1123.
Morf, L., 697.
Moritz, R. E., 1232, 1501.
Moroff, A., 1124, 1233.
Morsch, H., 1811.
Most, S., 549.
Muir, D., 221.
Muk, H., 1125.
Müller, C. H., 1502.
Müller, E., 1367-1368.
Müller, F., 1670, 1812.
Müller, H., 222, 550-551, 1249, 1828.
Müller, R., 1126.
Munchoff, E. R. von, 223.
Muthesius, K., 1814.
Myers, G. W., 552-555, 953, 1503-1504, 1671.
Myller, A., 224.

N.

Nagele, L., 1301.
Nager, J., 1127.
Nannei, E., 556.
Nath, M., 225, 557-561, 835, 1128, 1815-1816.
Natucci, A., 226, 274, 562, 836-837.
Neuberg, J., 563.
Neuhoff, H., 227.
Neurath, O., 1672.
Newbold, W., 566.
Newcomb, S., 838-839.
Newhall, C. W., 567-569, 954.
Nielsen, C., 1130.
Niewenglovski, B., 228.
Nitsche, O., 840, 1673.
Noaillon, P., 1446.
Noble, C. A., 570.
Nodnagel, 571.
Nonne, Th., 1447.
Noodt, G., 572-573, 955, 1131, 1448.
Nordlund, K. P., 956.
Norrenberg, J., 1132.

O.

Oberbach, J., 1449.
Oberle, K., 229.
Oblath, R., 576.
Ocagne, M. d', 1450-1452, 1505.
Orbán, G., 958, 1453.
Osborn, C. S., 959.
Osgood, W. F., 272, 1303-1304.
Ott, C., 698.
Otta, M., 1305.
Otti, 1506.

P.

Packard, J. C., 232, 578, 1675.
Paetz, W., 841.
Pages, A., 1454.
Pahl, F., 1676.
Palatini, F., 233.
Palmer, G. W., 842.
Palotay, A., 579.
Pannwitz, R., 1133.
Pařezek, A., 843.
Patterson, C. A., 1134-1135.
Paulsen, F., 234.
Péch, A., 1455.
Peck, P. N., 1136.
Pedoth, A., 844.
Penndorf, B., 699.
Penseler, G., 235.
Perrin, E., 1137.
Perry, J., 236-240, 1677-1678.
Peters, F. N., 1679.
Petit, G., 1138.
Petrini, H., 241.
Pfaff, H., 1139.
Pfitzner, P., 242.
Phillippowitsch, F., 220.
Pierpont, J., 244.
Pietzker, F., 245-250, 1369, 1680.
Pillet, F. J., 1370.
Pincherle, S., 274, 742.
Pittarelli, G., 1818.
Plasche, R., 252.
Pochin, E. A. N., 253.
Poincaré, H., 254-255.
Polakoff, S., 582.
Poprugenko, M., 701.
Poske, F., 256.
Possé, C., 743.
Postelmann, E., 1682.
Poussin, R., 1456.
Pradel, C., 583.
Pratt, A., 1457.
Presler, O., 1683-1684.
Pressland, A. J., 1685.
Prieur, 1458.
Pringsheim, A., 257.
Privorszky, A., 258.
Puller, 960.
Putney, E. N., 1140.
Pyle, L., 1686.

Q.

Queisser, F., 260.
Quint, N., 1507.
Quossek, K., 261-263, 587, 1371-1372, 1536.

R.

Rabes, O., 961.
Rados, I., 146, 264.
Rados, G., 703.
Rais, 806.
Ramaswami, A., 1306.
Ramsay, W. W., 1491.
Rátz, L., 1308.
Reich, K., 704.
Reiff, R., 590.
Reinhardt, C., 1688.
Reinhardt, R., 1373, 1824.
Reisky, S., 1141.
Reitmann, E., 271.
Renbach, W., 1374.
Report of the American commissioners, 272.
Ricci, G., 274.
Richard, J., 1143.
Richert, P., 1144, 1459.
Richter, A., 594-595, 705-706, 1375, 1744.
Richter, H., 1376.
Richter, M., 1377.
Richter, O., 1145, 1378, 1509, 1689.
Riechemeier, W., 1146.
Riecke, E., 1644-1645.
Riehl, A., 1690.
Riesz, F., 273.
Rietz, H. L., 962-963.
Rigge, W. F., 1147.
Ripert, L., 1148-1149.

Roe, E. D., 1150-1151.
Rohrauer, G., 1537.
Rohrberg, A., 275.
Rollet, P., 707.
Rönstrom, A., 596.
Rorer, J. T., 276, 846, 1152.
Rose, J., 277, 1250.
Rottsieper, W., 1460.
Roubalt, 1691.
Roubaudi, C., 1379-1380.
Rouse, E. L., 964.
Rousseau, H., 1154.
Row, T. S., 1155.
Rozé, P., 1510.
Ruault, 1692.
Rudel, E., 1693.
Ruediger, W. E., 1825.
Rühlmann, K., 1381.
Rühlmann, R., 278.
Rulf, W., 708.
Ruska, J., 1826.
Russell, B., 1156.

S.

S., B., 402.
St.-Germain, A de, 744.
Sainte Laguë, A., 279, 847-848, 1157-1158, 1461.
Salomon, A., 1159.
Salow, A., 1462.
Sandars, A., 1160.
Saposnikov, A., 965.
Saunders, S. A., 849.
Saxelby, F. M., 280.
Schacht, J., 1161-1163.
Schaewen, P. von, 1164-1165.
Schäffer, A., 281.
Scheibner, O., 282.
Scherrer, F. R., 1827.
Schiede, J., 1310.
Schiffner, F., 1828.
Schilling, C., 709.
Schilling, F., 1383.
Schilling, G., 1695.
Schimmack, R., 283-285, 520, 1311.
Schlags, W., 1463-1469.
Schlesinger, J., 286, 1167.
Schlesser, E., 598.
Schlosser, A., 599, 1235.
Schmall, C. N., 1312.
Schmehl, C., 1167, 1236, 1384, 1538.
Schmid, B., 287.
Schmidt, A., 1511.
Schmidt, J., 1213-1314.
Schmidt, O., 1696-1697.
Schmidt, W., 1539.
Schmitz-Mancy, M., 288.
Schnee, W., 1540.
Schneider, 850.
Schneider, F., 289.
Schnell, H., 600.
Schöngut, L., 1315.
Schotten, H., 290-295, 1385, 1465, 1698-1700, 1830.
Schoute, P. H., 1251.
Schrautzer, K., 1316.
Schreber, K., 1541.
Schröder, J., 601-602, 1237, 1466.
Schröder, O., 1831.
Schröter, K., 1317.
Schubert, H., 1512.
Schuberth, A., 1386.
Schülke, A., 296-300, 851, 967-968, 1168, 1273, 1318-1320, 1513-1514, 1701-1703.
Schulte, T. H., 1169.
Schultz, E., 1170, 1321, 1542.
Schultze, A., 1171.
Schulze, E., 302.
Schulze, E. W., 1172-1173.
Schulze, P., 1832.
Schumacher, R., 1515.
Schumann, E., 1322.
Schuster, M., 303, 1174.
Schütte, Fr., 1387.
Schwacha, P. B., 852.
Schwartz, A., 1704.
Schwarz, P., 853.
Schwarzschild, K., 1833.
Schwatt, I. J., 304-305, 604, 1175.
Schwering, K., 306, 605, 1834.
Schweter, R., 854.
Scorza, G., 710.
Scott, C. F., 711.
SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 414-655.
Sedgwick, *Mrs.* H., 745.
Seidler, H., 969, 1252.
Sellenthin, R., 1388-1389.
Servaty, J., 1745.
Servit, F., 1176.
Severi, F., 72.
Shaw, C. A., 855.
Sherk, W. H., 1177.
Shobinger, J. J., 606-607.
Short, R. L., 371, 608-609, 970.
Shutts, G. C., 1178.
Siddons, A. W., 171.
Sieber, A., 1467.
Sievert, H., 1033, 1179.
Simon, M., 310-313, 1180-1181
Simon, O., 610.
Simons, L. G., 9.
Simony, O., 713.
Sintsof, D., 611.
Sisson, E. P., 1182.
Skinner, E. B., 612, 1183.
Slater, C. H., 1705.
Slaught, H. E., 316-318, 971-972, 1184-1185.
SLIDE RULE. *See* LOGARITHMS.
Slocum, S. E., 319-320.
Smith, A. W., 1468.
Smith, D. E., 268, 272, 274, 321-326, 403, 613, 856-858, 973-974, 1186, 1706, 1835.
Smith, E. R., 9, 975, 1187-1189.
Snow, L. F., 746.
Snur, H., 328.
Soecknick, K., 329, 1190.
Somervell, E. L., 330.
Somigliana, C., 747.
Sommer, J., 1238.
Sommerville, F. H., 976.
Sós, E., 1469-1470.
Souls, 331.
Sourek, A.-V., 332.
Spencer, H. J., 404.
Spiess, J., 1516.
Stäckel, P., 713, 1707-1708.

Stamper, A. W., 1191, 1836.
Starch, D., 859.
Stark, W. E., 542, 614.
Steckelberg, H., 1323.
Steinbart, O., 333.
Stephens, I., 405.
Sterneck, R. von, 748.
Steuer, W., 860.
Stiessen, M., 1192.
Stitt, E. W., 861.
Stöcklin, J., 406.
Stone, C. W., 862.
Stone, J. C., 948.
Story, L., 615.
Story, W. E., 334.
Strayer, G. D., 400, 407.
Streng, K., 863.
Stromeyer, C., 335–336.
Strong, C., 337.
Stscherbina, K., 616.
Study, E., 355.
Sturm, 1709.
Stuyvaert, M., 1471.
Suppantschitsch, R., 339, 617, 864, 1193, 1517, 1838.
Sutton, C. W., 1194.
Suzzallo, H., 865.
Sykes, M., 340, 1195.
Szabó, D., 1239.
Szabó, G., 146, 1710.
Szabó, P., 618, 1196–1197.
Szántó, H., 1472.
Szenes, A., 619, 866.
Szijártó, M., 1473.
Szűcs, A., 342, 1198.
Szűcs, E., 1240.

T.

Tanfi, I., 343, 408, 1543, 1839.
Tanikiewits, V., 1474.
Tannery, J., 344–345, 1199.
Taylor, A. R., 978.
Taylor, C. K., 1200.
Taylor, J. M., 979.
TEACHERS, PREPARATION OF, 1746–1815.
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS, 656–718.
Terry, H. S., 980.
Tešar, L., 1324, 1711–1712.
Thaer, A., 620–622, 1325–1326.
Thiede, J., 1201, 1327, 1544.
Thiemayer, K., 1713.
Thieme, H., 1202–1203, 1328, 1714.
Thijn, A., 981.
Thomson, G. H., 1840.
Thomson, H. I., 1475.
Thorndike, E. L., 867–868.
Thurston, E. L., 1715.
Tiebe, A., 1716.
Tiedge, E., 1390.
Timerding, H. E., 1204–1205, 1329, 1717–1718.
Tinsley, S. B., 623.
Toan, B. E., 982.
Torrès, L., 1476.
Touton, F. C., 1477.
Tower, M. E., 1719.
Townsend, E. J., 749.
Tresse, A., 983, 1518.
Treutlein, P., 348, 409, 1206–1208, 1720.
TRIGONOMETRY, 1222–1241.
Tripard, L., 870–871.
Tripp, M. O., 984.
Tuckey, C. O., 1330.
Twrdy, K., 1391.
Tyler, H. W., 624, 716, 692.

U.

Uhlig, G., 349.
Umani, A., 1571.
Umlauf, K., 410.
Unger, F., 1722.
Upshall, C. W., 1723.
Upton, C. B., 690, 1844.
Urban, A., 1331.
Utescher, O., 872.

V.

Vaes, F. J., 350.
Vailati, G., 627–630.
Valiron, G., 873.
Vallée-Poussin, C. de la, 351.
Vareil, A., 1209.
Vatuzzi, A., 874.
Verein deutscher Ingenieure, 353, 631.
Veronese, G., 632, 1210.
Versammlung deutscher Philologen und Schulmänner in Basel, 354.
Versammlung deutscher Philologen und Schulmänner in Bonn, 355.
Visnya, A., 356, 635.
Vital, A., 1519.
Vogel, E., 1725.
Vogt, H., 636.
Vogt, K. W., 637.
Volenszky, Gy, 638.
Vollprecht, H., 876.
Volpi, R., 1211.
Voss, A., 358.
Vuibert, H., 639.

W.

Wägler, E., 1364.
Wagner, L., 877.
Wahlgren, A., 640.
Walckling, R., 359, 1726.
Waldvogel, J., 641.
Wallentin, J. G., 878, 1727.
Wallis, 1478.
Walsemann, H., 879.
Walsh, C. B., 642.
Walther, F., 360, 1212–1213.
Wangerin, A., 1728.
Ward, F. L., 148, 361.
Weber, H., 362, 1845.
Webster, F., 880.
Weill, A., 1479–1480.
Weinbeer, E. W., 1394.
Weinmeister, P., 1332.
Weise, K., 1395.
Weisner, 1520.
Weiss, F., 363.
Weist, H., 986, 1214–1215.
Weit, 806.
Well, G. J. van de, 1333.
Wendler, A., 364, 1241, 1334, 1545–1547.
Werkmeister, P., 1335, 1481.
Wernicke, A., 365, 1730.

Westman, J., 1731.
White, H. S., 750, 1253.
White, R. D., 1732.
White, W. F., 881–882.
Whitford, E. E., 1216.
Wieleitner, H., 366, 644, 883–885, 1733.
Wilcynski, E. J., 752.
Wilk, E., 645, 886.
Williams, R. P., 887.
Williams, S., 887.
Wilson, W. H., 753.
Wiman, A., 754.
Wimperis, H. E., 367.
Winch, W. H., 889–890.
Wines, L. D., 646.
Winter, J., 1521.
Wirz, J., 647.
Witting, A., 368–369, 648, 1217, 1734–1735.
Wolff, A., 1218.
Woodruff, E. C., 1736.
Woodward, R. S., 718.
Woolen, H., 370.
Wooley, J. F., 964.
Wormell, R., 1737.
Wottling, A., 649.
Wright, H. C., 371.
Wychgram, J., 650.

Y.

Young, J. W. A., 272, 372–376, 412, 651–653, 1738.
Young, W. H., 377, 890.

Z.

Zahradniček, K., 1336–1339.
Zaremba, S., 413.
Zdelar, M., 378.
Zeissig, E., 1221.
Zenhain, 806.
Ziegler, 892–893.
Ziehen, J., 655.
Zimmermann, F., 1340.
Zoll, O., 894.
Zuckersdorfer, J., 863.
Zühlke, P., 1396–1399.
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LATIN-AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS

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CONTENTS.

Page.
Letter of Transmittal 7
Prefatory Note 10

PART I. UNIVERSITIES.

Chapter I.—The Founding of Universities 11
The first universities, 11; the second group, 12; development of legal studies, 13; medical studies, 14; the sciences, 14; the third group, 15; professional faculties in Brazil, 15; other foundations, 16; reasons for multiplication of universities, 16; University of La Plata, 18.
Chapter II.—Students, Studies, and Degrees 21
Enrollment, 21; secondary schools, 22; the university faculties, 22; degrees and examinations, 23; academic honors, 24; methods, 25.
Chapter III.—University Organization 26
Professors and tenure of office, 26; teaching hours per week, 27; no teaching profession, 27; duties of a professor, 28; professional prestige, 29; methods of choosing a professor, 29; the substitute professor, 31; Government confirmation, 31; decentralization in the universities, 31; departments scattered, 32; academies, 33; close relation between the university and secondary schools, 34; material contact, 34; movement in favor of preparatory schools, 35; the Chilean project, 36; the Uruguayan plan, 36.
Chapter IV.—University Buildings 38
Modern buildings for medical schools, 38; the engineering school, 39; modern buildings, 39.
Chapter V.—Budgets and Salaries 41
Reasons for favoring the universities, 41; annual budgets, 41; proportional cost and enrollment, 42; large teaching staff, 42; few teaching hours, 42; some comparisons, 43; the Uruguayan policy, 44.
Chapter VI.—The Law Faculty 45
Physical equipment and libraries, 45; organization, 46; curricula, 46; aims of the law school, 47; practical training minimized, 48; bar associations, 49; general culture courses, 49; duration of studies and methods of instruction, 50; advantages of the law curriculum, 51; the La Plata plan, 52.
Chapter VII.—Faculty of Medicine 53
Equipment, 53; the faculty regulates the practice of medicine, 54; preparation of professors, 54; hospital facilities, 55; curriculum, 55; duration of studies, 56; the subsidiary schools, 57; medical texts and libraries, 58; vacation schools, 58; two needed reforms, 59.
Chapter VIII.—The Engineering Faculty 60
Difficulties, 60; material equipment, 61; organization, 62; curricula, 63; class and laboratory, 64; enrollment, 65.
Chapter IX.—Nonstate Institutions 66
Colegio de Nuestra Señora del Rosario, 66; the Catholic University of Chile, 67; Mackenzie College, 68.

PART II. SPECIAL EDUCATION.

Page.

CHAPTER X.—NORMAL EDUCATION 70

Admission, 70; course of study, 71; observations on the curricula, 73; method and examinations, 74; organization and scholarships, 75; social position, 77; primary school and liceo, 78; a restriction, 78; personnel, 78; secretary and professors, 79; practice teaching, 80; rented buildings, 80; financial disadvantages, 81; State-owned buildings, 81; equipment, 82; laboratories, 83; school museums, 83; higher and special normal education, 83; the Chilean Normal College, 84; foreign professors, 84; coeducation, 85; groups of studies, 85; Latin, 86; building and equipment, 86; foreigner or native, 87; the Argentina higher normal school, 87; curriculum, 88; equipment, 89; a teachers' college in the university, 89; another teachers' college, 90; special normal schools, 91; the Alberdi School, 91.

CHAPTER XI.—COMMERCIAL EDUCATION 94

Different systems, 95; the Chilean system, 95; curriculum, 95; interest in commercial education, 96; methods, 96; instructors, 97; the parent school, 97; the Argentine type, 98; a commercial high school, 98; schools of commerce, 99; commercial education in Brazil, 100; evening classes, 101; in the other countries, 101; commercial studies in high schools, 101; private commercial colleges, 102; church schools, 102; general status of commercial education, 103.

CHAPTER XII.—AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION 104

Agricultural colleges, 105; expenditures for agricultural colleges, 106; dissimilarities in organization, 107; admission requirements, 108; curriculum, 108; two grades of titles, 110; the agricultural career, 111; primary agricultural schools, 110; number of schools, 111; physical equipment, 111; course of study, 112; other types, 113; Indian schools, 113; an agricultural normal school, 114.

CHAPTER XIII.—INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION 115

Progress in industrial education, 115; elementary industrial schools, 116; training for the trades, 116; equipment, 117; the school at Santiago de Chile, 117; curriculum, 118; history, 119; industrial education in Argentina, 119; tuition fees and scholarships, 120; buildings and equipment, 121; the school at Buenos Aires, 121; industrial schools for women, 122; different types, 122; patronage of the industrial schools, 123; a unique institution, 123; another unique type, 124.

PART III. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

CHAPTER XIV.—COEDUCATION 126

In the universities, 128; results, 129; an economic movement, 129; in industrial schools, 130; in commercial schools, 130; in normal schools, 130.

CHAPTER XV.—ANCIENT LANGUAGES 132

CHAPTER XVI.—MODERN LANGUAGES 136

In secondary education, 136; in the university, 136; in normal schools, 137; in commercial schools, 137; reasons for foreign-language study, 138; method of instruction, 139.

CHAPTER XVII.—SCHOOL TEXTS 141

Animosity to texts, 141; a needed reform, 142.

CHAPTER XVIII.—STUDENT SOCIETIES 144

INDEX 149

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Page.
Plate 1. University of Venezuela, Caracas .... Frontispiece
2A. Museum, La Plata, Argentina 14
2B. New Palace of Fine Arts, Santiago, Chile 14
3A. Principal façade of the new university building at Montevideo... 14
3B. University of Chile, Santiago 14
4A. A patio in the University of Caracas, Venezuela 14
4B. Observatory in the Alameda, Quito, Ecuador 14
5A. University of Cordoba, Argentina 14
5B. Patio of San Marcos University, Lima, Peru 14
6A. National Library, Rio de Janeiro 30
6B. School of Fine Arts and Art Museum, Rio de Janeiro 30
7A. Old seminary at San Jose, Costa Rica 30
7B. Boys' High School, Rio de Janeiro 30
8A. Patio of the Boys' High School at La Paz, Bolivia 30
8B. The National College, Asuncion, Paraguay 30
9A. "Salon de Actos," University of Cordoba, Argentina 30
9B. Reading room in the library of the university, Cordoba, Argentina. 30
10A. Graduate school for men, Buenos Aires 46
10B. Vestibule and patio of the amphitheater of the National Preparatory School, Mexico City 46
11A. The Pernambuco (Brazil) Law School, approaching completion... 46
11B. New building designed for the law department of the University of Buenos Aires, Argentina 46
12A. A portal of the Law College, Guatemala City 46
12B. The "Salon de Actos" of the Law College of the University of San Marcos, Lima, Peru 46
13A. School of Medicine, Lima, Peru 54
13B. School of Medicine, Guatemala City 54
14A. Partial view of the National College at Rio de Janeiro 54
14B. Anatomical Institution, Caracas, Venezuela 54
15A. Medical School, Buenos Aires, Argentina 54
15B. Chemical Institute, Montevideo, Uruguay 54
16A. Polytechnic School, Rio de Janeiro 62
16B. Polytechnic School, Sao Paulo, Brazil 62
17A. Façade of the Engineering School, University of Caracas, Venezuela 62
17B. Old university building, now used for the School of Engineering, Montevideo, Uruguay 62
18A. Preparatory school, Catholic University of Santiago, Chile 62
18B. Mackenzie College, Sao Paulo, Brazil 62
19A. Normal School No. 1 for Women, Buenos Aires, Argentina 78
19B. Fête in the Modern Language Normal School, Buenos Aires 78
20A. Façade of Normal School for Girls No. 3, Santiago, Chile 78
20B. Group of students of the Normal School for Girls No. 1, Santiago, Chile 78
21A. Façade of new Normal School for Girls, La Serena, Chile 78

Page.
Plate 21B. A patio in the same school.......... 78
22A. Front view of the new National Normal School, Cordoba, Argentina.......... 78
22B. Rear view of the same building.......... 78
23A. Normal School, Rio de Janeiro.......... 78
23B. Normal School, Sao Paulo, Brazil.......... 78
24A. Façade of the Normal School, Arequipa, Peru.......... 78
24B. Patio of the same school.......... 78
25A. High and Normal School for Girls, Guatemala City.......... 78
25B. Main entrance of the Provincial Normal School, Cordoba, Argentina.......... 78
26A. A covered patio in the Men's Normal School, Chillan, Chile.......... 78
26B. A group of students, Superior College for Young Ladies, San Jose, Costa Rica.......... 78
27A. Kindergarten, Sao Paulo, Brazil.......... 86
27B. Boys' High School, San Jose, Costa Rica.......... 86
28A. Normal School, Saltillo, State of Coahuila, Mexico.......... 86
28B. Model School, Itapetininga, Sao Paulo, Brazil.......... 86
29. College of La Paz, Mexico City.......... 86
30. School of Commerce, Sao Paulo, Brazil.......... 100
31A. Agricultural school, Piracicaba, Brazil.......... 110
31B. General Bittencourt Institute, Para, Brazil.......... 110
32A. Game of soccer, at the Agricultural College, Piracicaba, Brazil.... 110
32B. Botanical laboratory in Agricultural College, Piracicaba, Brazil.... 110
33A. Façade of the recitation hall of the Indian school, La Paz.......... 110
33B. A group of pupils of the same school.......... 110
34A. Agricultural school, Sayago, Uruguay.......... 110
34B. School of Arts and Trades, Lima, Peru.......... 110
35A. Industrial School, Rosario, Argentina.......... 120
35B. National Industrial School, Buenos Aires, Argentina.......... 120
36A. School of arts and crafts for girls, La Serena, Chile.......... 120
36B. Iron foundry, School of Arts and Trades, Santiago, Chile.......... 120
37A. International Students' Conference. View of the conference in session, Lima, Peru.......... 144
37B. International Students' Conference. Reception at the University of San Marcos.......... 144

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

Department of the Interior,
Bureau of Education,
Washington, D. C., November 8, 1912.

Sir: The relations between the United States and the Latin-American Republics south of us are constantly becoming closer, and the subjects of common interest more numerous. With increase of commercial interests there should come a like increase in intellectual and cultural interests. The value of commercial relations between two countries is not measured in dollars and cents alone. The exchange of ideas, the feeling of interdependence, the sentiments of friendship, fellowship, and brotherhood, and the broader outlook and fuller and richer life which come to the people of both countries are, or should be, no less important than the exchange of the products of mines, fields, forests, and factories and the material wealth gained thereby.

The highest ideals of a country are to be found in its universities and colleges, the home of the best that has come down from the past, the birthplace of the best that is to go forth into the future. Established and controlled by the spirit of conservatism, they are the training ground for the leaders in all lines of future progress. They are the power houses and transferring stations of civilization, in which new currents are generated and older currents and those generated elsewhere are transformed into the voltage required for the new work. Therefore, one learns the heart of a people most easily and most surely through a study of its colleges and universities.

Already young men and young women of the South and Central American Republics are coming to the colleges and universities of this country for work in agriculture, mining, electrical engineering, economics, and such other subjects as they believe they can pursue with advantage here, and for the knowledge of our language, customs, laws, and civilization which they may gain at the same time. One or more bulletins have been issued already by this bureau for the instruction of actual and prospective students of this kind. In like manner, American students should attend the colleges and universities of these Republics in such numbers and to such an extent as will make common among our people a knowledge of the manners, customs, ideals, and the commercial and industrial possibilities of these peoples and countries, and furnish us a supply of men and women of ability and scholarship who are familiar with their language, history, literature, and traditions.

Though the history, traditions, purposes, ideals, and forms of government of our institutions of higher learning differ widely from those of the colleges and universities of these Republics, yet these last have many lessons for us, and we have known and still know all too little of them.

For these reasons I recommend that the accompanying manuscript, which is the result of a prolonged, careful, and intelligent study at first-hand of some of the more important colleges and universities of the Latin-American Republics, be published as a bulletin of this bureau.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. Claxton,
Commissioner.

The Secretary of the Interior.

PREFATORY NOTE.

This volume is the result of personal observation and investigation. During the latter part of 1911 and the first part of 1912 I traveled in almost all the countries of Latin America, studying the institutions of higher and special education. I visited practically all the universities and a great many normal, commercial, industrial, and agricultural schools, with the ambition of observing at first-hand their organization, administration, curricula, methods, and physical equipment. In addition to interviews with administrative officers, instructors, and students I gathered all the printed matter available, such as official reports, curricula, laws, and statutes of the institutions, historical notes, university and student publications, and statistical memoranda. Even for institutions not visited I have had access in most cases to original official reports. It would therefore be useless to append a detailed bibliography, since it could only be an enumeration of university annuals and similar publications.

In referring to universities I have consistently designated them by the name of the city in which they are located, although that is not always their official and corporate name. The ecclesiastical foundations of colonial times uniformly bore the name of a saint: San Marcos, at Lima; San Felipe, at Santiago de Chile; San Francisco Xavier, at Sucre, etc. In very few cases have the old names remained. Some institutions have received the name of the country, as the University of Chile; others the name of the city, as University of Cordoba. In order to avoid confusion and to indicate clearly the location of the institutions I have applied to each the name of the city.

In giving the cost of buildings and apparatus, the salaries of instructors, and in other cases when it is a question of money and prices, the figures uniformly indicate United States currency. It was not always possible to calculate accurately, since rates of exchange have varied in different years. The figures are designed principally for purposes of general comparison, and approximations were deemed sufficient.

The present treatise lays no claim to completeness. It is a general survey of the whole wide subject of higher and special education in Latin America, and is given to the public in the hope of conveying a comprehensive idea of Latin-American educational institutions and of provoking more detailed studies in an interesting field.

LATIN-AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

PART I. UNIVERSITIES.

CHAPTER I.

THE FOUNDING OF UNIVERSITIES.

The Spanish settlements in America were provided with the means of higher education with celerity equal to if not greater than that shown in the English colonies. In less than a half century from the date of the first permanent settlement, schools for advanced education, as education was then regarded, had been established in due and permanent form, and by the end of the century there existed a chain of colleges or universities extending from Mexico and the West Indies to the southernmost colony of Argentina. From that time to the present, Spanish-America has been zealous in the establishment of institutions for training in the liberal professions, and during the past century Portuguese-America has kept pace with her neighbor. A brief survey of the circumstances under which the institutions were established is necessary to an appreciative understanding of their present status, methods, and accomplishments, since the motives for their foundation were as different as the eras that marked their birth.

The first universities.—As regards their foundation Latin-American universities fall naturally into three groups. The first comprises the colonial establishments. It is not easy to determine accurately the date of the old universities. Three events were all important in the early history of each institution, namely, the sanction of the church, the royal charter, and the actual inauguration of academic studies; the date of any one of these may be cited as the initial date of the institution. It is not surprising, therefore, that conflicting statements are found in authorities of equal value. The question is of little importance after all to the general student, since the variations are insignificant, and the date of the colonial universities may be stated approximately as follows: Mexico and Lima, 1551; Santo Domingo, 1558; Bogotá, 1572; Cordoba, 1613; Sucre, 1623; Guatemala, about 1675; Cuzco, 1692; Caracas, 1721; Santiago de Chile, 1738; Habana, 1782; Quito, 1787.

It is needless to look for individuality in these institutions. All owe their origin to the same influence, and their organization was essentially uniform. The church was the prime mover in their establishment, although influential laymen holding high political positions contributed notably to their foundation. The principal object of each university was to promote the cause of religion in the colonies by providing an educated clergy numerous enough to care for the spiritual welfare of the settlers and to further the work of evangelization among the natives. The central department of the institution was the faculty of letters and philosophy, through which all students must pass on their way to the professional schools. The latter were exceedingly limited in the colonial university. There was a department of civil and canon law, but the former was overshadowed in the ecclesiastical organization of the institution, and had to await the era of national independence before coming to its own. The university usually contained a professorship of medicine, but prior to the nineteenth century it was the medicine of the medieval school men, academic and empirical. The one professional school that flourished was the faculty of theology. It was for it that the university was created, and to it led all academic avenues.

Clerical in its origin and purpose, the colonial university was also clerical in its government. Theoretically the corporation enjoyed large autonomy, since it formulated its rules and regulations, chose its officers, and selected professors for vacant chairs. But this autonomy was largely illusory. The professors were almost exclusively members of the priesthood, and as such owed implicit obedience to the bishop, and, in addition, the election of officers and new professors required the confirmation of the prelate. University autonomy was, therefore, carefully circumscribed by church prerogative, and this equivocal form of government has been transmitted with little change to modern times, except that the State has taken the place of the church. Several universities of the colonial era owe their foundation to one or another of the great religious orders. In these cases the order equipped, manned, and directed the school, subject, of course, to papal authority and to the immediate oversight of the bishop.

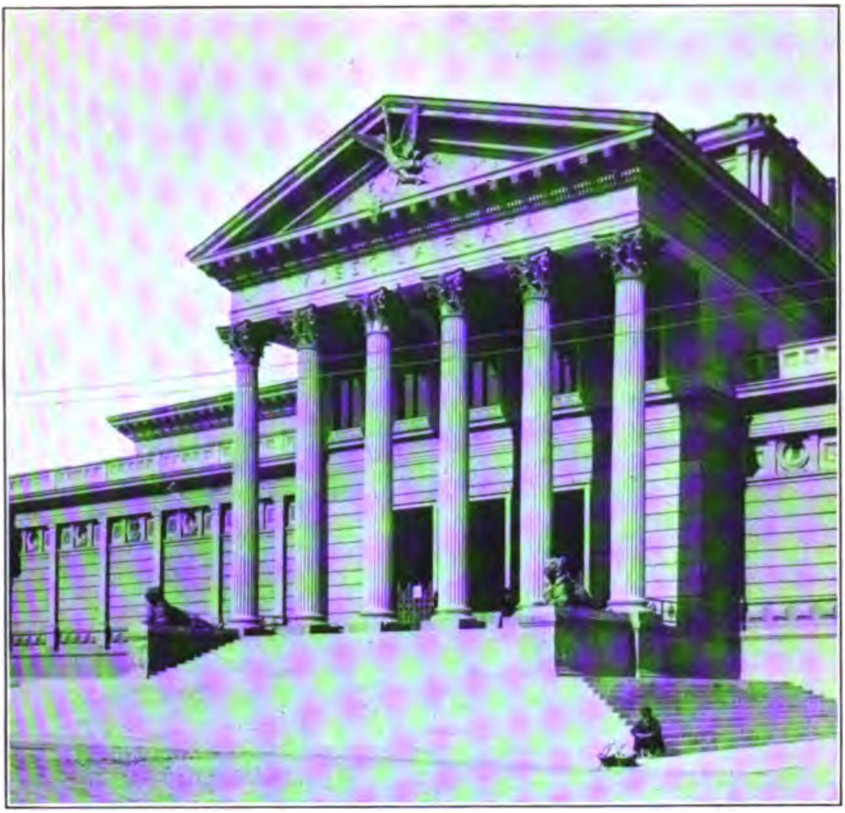
The second group.—A second group of institutions of higher education sprang into existence in the era of national independence. After several abortive attempts extending over a period of 20 years, the University of Buenos Aires was definitely organized in 1821 by the consolidation of existing academies of law and medicine, and the erection of other faculties. In Peru the University of Trujillo was chartered in 1824, although not opened until 1831, and the University of Arequipa was founded in 1835. An institution was established at Medellin, in Colombia, in 1822. The famous Restrepo had conducted classes in philosophy there as early as 1814. Even after its formal organization the school was conducted under several different names, and it was not until much later that it assumed the title of university. None of these institutions, with the exception of Buenos Aires, had at their inception or have ever attained a full complement of faculties. At the present time Arequipa maintains departments of letters, sciences, and jurisprudence; Trujillo, letters and jurisprudence; Medellin, medicine and jurisprudence. In Brazil the university form of organization did not find favor. Professional schools were established, each independently of the other. Schools of medicine were founded at Rio de Janeiro and Bahia in 1808, and law schools at Sao Paulo and Recife (formerly Pernambuco) in 1827. The failure to establish professional or other schools of higher learning in Brazil during the colonial epoch is perhaps due to closer and easier communication with the mother country than existed between Spain and her continental American possessions.

Development of legal studies.—In the university establishments of the second period the church had no part, at least not as an organization. It was to secular influence that the universities and professional schools of the early part of the nineteenth century owe their existence, and from the first they have depended upon civil authority, either local or national. In this same period the old universities were taken over more or less completely by the state, and in many added importance was at once given to the subjects of medicine and civil law. By their break with the mother country the Spanish States were thrown upon their own resources in matters educational. The continuous stream of governors, judges, administrators, and physicians that had flowed for three centuries from the metropolis into the colonies was suddenly arrested. The supply must hereafter come from native sources. Moreover, in the flush of newborn independence there was engendered an intense feeling of local pride and a determination to become self-sufficient in culture as well as in politics. The rapid extension of law schools, the increased importance ascribed to this branch of study in the older universities, and the dominant position it has ever since held in the Spanish-American university, is in great measure the result of influence that gathered and pressed upon the public consciousness in those early years of national independence. Society was to be reconstituted, a new government to be organized, colonial thraldom to be replaced by civil and political liberty. What nobler mission for the sons of a new commonwealth than to prepare themselves by a study of jurisprudence and political sciences for their country's service! While ancient principles of law still subsisted and court procedure remained much the same, new codes were made in the several States and republican ideals were substituted for monarchical traditions.

It was absolutely necessary for the young Republics to train their lawgivers, jurists, and public officials in the atmosphere of democratic institutions. National self-preservation demanded national schools of jurisprudence. Consequently, in the old universities, as well as in the newly created ones, the faculty of law and political sciences assumed such importance that it soon overshadowed the other faculties and came to be considered by far the most important department of higher education.

Medical studies.—The definitive organization of the medical faculty as a distinct department of the university dates also from the same period as that of law. It has been stated that the schools of Rio de Janeiro and Bahia were founded in 1808. The medical faculty of Guatemala places its beginning in the year 1804, Lima considers 1811 the date of its final organization, and Caracas counts from the revised statutes of the university in 1826. In Buenos Aires a school of medicine was founded in 1801 and enlarged in 1813. In 1821 it amalgamated with the new university. Political independence did not have the same overwhelming influence on medical studies that it did on the study of law, but separation from the mother country could not fail to encourage the development of local institutions in a subject so important as that of medicine.

The sciences.—At about the same period the department of mathematics, including physics and astronomy, was introduced into several universities. At first the department consisted of a single professorship, but with the advance of scientific study it developed into the *facultad de ciencias exactas*, embracing all physico-mathematical sciences. When it exists as an independent institution it is commonly called the polytechnic school, or the school of engineering. This latter appellation is often used even when it forms a part of the university, to the disregard of the official nomenclature *facultad de ciencias exactas.* The origin of this faculty owes nothing to political or national development, but is rather to be traced to the academic influence of the Encyclopédistes of France, who urged the importance of mathematical and scientific studies, and whose ideas were in great part incorporated into the French system of education under the First Republic, to be imitated later in the Spanish republics of America. In fact, it may be affirmed that the dominant influence in the educational life of Latin-American countries since their emancipation, as well as in their social and political life, has been French and not Spanish. The continuance of the monarchy and monarchial ideas in Spain, added to the animosities remaining from the war of independence, have kept the Spanish-American republics estranged from the mother country, while the advance of democratic ideas in France has appealed strongly to the New World democracies and led to a close imitation of the French in all social activities.



A. MUSEUM, LA PLATA, ARGENTINA.

B. NEW PALACE OF FINE ARTS, SANTIAGO, CHILE.

A. PRINCIPAL FAÇADE OF THE NEW UNIVERSITY BUILDING AT MONTEVIDEO.

B. UNIVERSITY OF CHILE, SANTIAGO.

A. PATIO IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CARACAS, VENEZUELA.

B. OBSERVATORY IN THE ALAMEDA, QUITO, ECUADOR.

A. UNIVERSITY OF CORDOBA, ARGENTINA.

B. PATIO OF SAN MARCOS UNIVERSITY, LIMA, PERU.

The third group.—Institutions of higher education which have been founded in recent times in Latin America owe their existence to a variety of circumstances and motives. The University of Montevideo, beginning with a law school in 1849, marks the final crystallization of Uruguayan nationality, and should perhaps be classed with the second group, although founded much later. A movement looking to the establishment of a university in Uruguay was started as early as 1830, and the institution was almost a fact in 1836, when internal dissensions caused the postponement of the project. The university contained no other faculty than that of law until 1876. In this year a school of medicine was organized, and in the following decade a school of engineering.

The proclamation of the Republic in Brazil in 1889, and the subsequent federation of its component States, have slowly wrought a change in the status of higher education in that country. The States are almost wholly autonomous. The federation is looser even than that of the United States of America. In matters of education the National Government is theoretically responsible only in the Federal District. Elsewhere public instruction is a prerogative of the respective States. It is true that the four so-called national schools of law and medicine have remained under the jurisdiction of the central Government and continued to receive their financial support from the national treasury, but this anomalous situation will be corrected by recent legislation. State autonomy, coupled with the rapid growth in wealth and population of many parts of Brazil, has made the principal State capitals centers of much more importance than they were in the days of the empire. Educational progress has followed material advance, and groups of professional schools have grown up in Bahia, Bello Horizonte, Sao Paulo, Recife, and Porto Alegre. Up to the present time there have been no universities in Brazil, the professional schools having remained independent faculties, but the new educational law enacted in 1911 favors the university form of organization, and it is possible that in each educational center the various faculties may soon consolidate.

Professional faculties in Brazil.—An enumeration of the professional schools organized in Brazil during the past two decades gives some idea of the interest shown in this form of higher education and the distribution of the different schools. A medical school (the third in the Republic), including departments of pharmacy and dentistry, was founded at Porto Alegre in 1899. A school of pharmacy has long been a regular adjunct of a faculty of medicine, and a dental school has lately been created in each of the old medical faculties of Rio de Janeiro and Bahia. Additional schools of pharmacy have been established at Belem (Para), Ouro Preto, Juiz de Fora, and Sao Paulo. The latter contains also a section of dentistry and is on the point of expanding into a complete school of medicine.

Law schools were founded at Rio de Janeiro in 1882 and 1891, at Bahia in 1890, at Bello Horizonte in 1892, and Porto Alegre in 1900.

The first scientific school of Brazil was founded at Rio de Janeiro as early as 1810, but for several decades it was a military engineering school only. After passing through several metamorphoses it finally acquired, in 1868, its present organization and the name of Escola Polytechnica. Several other engineering schools have recently been established—Recife, 1892; Sao Paulo, 1894; Porto Alegre, 1894; and Bahia, 1896. All have followed in name and organization the model of the one at the national capital.

Other foundations.—The foundation of such universities as that of Santa Fé, in Argentina, in 1890; of Guayaquil and Cuenca, in Ecuador; and of Los Andes, at Merida, in Venezuela, are due to local pride and ambition, coupled with difficulties of communication with older university centers. This latter consideration has led to the establishment of many independent faculties in Bolivia, where there are schools of law at La Paz, Cochabamba, and Potosi, and a medical faculty at La Paz, in addition to faculties of law, medicine, and theology at Sucre, the old capital. The latter in colonial times were combined, forming the old historic Universidad Mayor de Francisco Xavier, but are now independent schools.

Panama has not as yet established any school of university grade, but all the Republics of Central America possess colleges of law (in Nicaragua there are no less than three) and all except Costa Rica maintain medical schools. These institutions are of comparatively recent foundation except those of Guatemala, the old official metropolis of Central America under the colonial régime. They owe their origin to the dissolution of the Central American Confederation about the middle of the nineteenth century and the subsequent development of local nationalities.

Reasons for multiplication of universities.—There is an unmistakable tendency in Latin America to increase the number of higher educational institutions, although conditions economic and otherwise do not always warrant the new foundations. New centers of population are zealous to complete their attractiveness by adding a university to their civic advantages. Regional jealousies and local politics contribute also to strengthen the movement. As indicated in a preceding paragraph, the natural barriers that divide many South American countries into distinct regions and the very great difficulties of travel and communication between the capital and the Provinces have sometimes led to the establishment of minor universities when the total university population and the financial conditions of the country were inadequate to support more than one. The provincial universities of Cuzco, Arequipa, and Trujillo, in Peru; of Guayaquil, Cuenca, and the law school of Loja, in Ecuador; the two faculties of medicine and the half dozen faculties of law in Bolivia; the minor universities of Merida in Venezuela and Cartagena, Popayan, Medellin, and Pasto in Colombia, all owe their existence to the broken topography of the country as much as to local ambitions. The support of these provincial universities is a severe burden on the national treasury and presents disadvantages of an educational order, but the regions they serve are remote from the chief university center of their respective countries and their suppression would entail great hardship on the youth that frequent them. In many cases it would be a national misfortune. Bolivia has struggled with the problem, but to no avail. Professional schools have increased in number instead of diminishing. In her difficulties Bolivia has pointed with envy to Chile with her one central State university, unmindful that the latter country is beginning to feel the same influences and there is probability of the creation of two other institutions. Recent ministers of public instruction in Ecuador have inveighed against the plurality of universities, pointing out that for each student enrolled the nation expends annually $350. The Andean Ranges that divide the country form an insurmountable argument in support of the existing system.

Another reason that operates for the establishment of provincial universities would be devoid of weight in the United States. In Spanish America a national capital exerts an indescribable attraction on the cultured and educated classes. Professional men prefer to live poorly, if necessary, in this center of social refinement rather than to enjoy opulence in a provincial town. Lawyers, doctors, and others whom a State has educated at great cost abound in the capital, while the countryside lacks necessary professional service. The young men who go from the smaller towns feel the lure of the capital with its large university so strongly that after graduation they remain there. The Provinces lack educated leaders and trained public servants. This is the reason ascribed for the foundation of the law school of Santa Fé, in Argentina, which has recently added other departments of instruction and promises soon to become a complete university. Neither great distance nor difficulty of travel separates it from the National University of Buenos Aires on the south or Cordoba on the west. In Chile this same reason, coupled with local city pride and the fear that the church might preempt a promising field to the exclusion of the state, has caused the foundation of schools of law at Valparaiso and Concepcion. The prediction is freely made that the latter will develop very shortly into a full-fledged university. In view of the relatively large university population in Chile and the intelligent interest shown in education, there would be more reason for this additional institution than for some that now exist in other South American countries.

The situation in Central America is unfortunate. No one of the five small Republics is populous enough or rich enough to maintain a complete first-class university. A solution of the problem of higher education there might be found in the reestablishment of the old federation and the exercise of the policy of distributing the various branches of the Federal Government among the States in order to allay local jealousies, as has recently been done so successfully in British South Africa.

University of La Plata.—This university, but recently established, is unique both in spirit and in organization. The story of its foundation and an account of its policies and methods can be given only in outline, but deserve larger space.

In 1882 the Province of Buenos Aires transferred the seat of the provincial government from the city of Buenos Aires to the town of La Plata, distant an hour's ride by rail from the Federal capital. Local pride was stirred to the highest pitch of enthusiasm. The new city was to rival in beauty and in importance the national metropolis. A pretentious street plan was evolved, parks were established, boulevards stretched away in magnificent distances. The provincial government constructed fine public buildings, paved the streets, and provided modern systems of water, electricity, and sewerage. The town grew rapidly, but the lure of the great Federal capital only 30 miles away was very great, and in order to retain educated public servants and enhance the attractiveness of the new metropolis, there was established in 1897 a provincial university, embracing the faculties of law and social sciences, of physics, mathematics, and astronomy, of agronomy and veterinary medicine, and of chemistry and pharmacy, to which was added in 1900 a faculty of medicine. A practical agricultural and veterinary school was also affiliated with the university, while an extensive astronomical and meteorological station, and a splendid museum of ethnology and natural history completed the educational equipment.

This organization continued for eight or nine years. The number of students was always small. There could be but little academic spirit. The element of vigorous emulation was wanting. The Province lost its first enthusiasm for the educational enterprise, and as the institution was simply a miniature copy of the great university of Buenos Aires, there was no real need for its existence. As early as 1902 the Province began to relinquish its responsibility in favor of the National Government. At this juncture a band of Argentine educators, imbued with the spirit of pure scholarship, conceived the idea of converting the institution into a university more nearly approaching the European and North American types. Through their influence the Province was induced to transfer the university with all its buildings, grounds, equipment, and endowment to the National Government. In 1905 the institution became the "Universidad Nacional de la Plata" and started out on a new career, under a very different organization and with changed policies. The school of medicine was wisely abandoned. The proximity to the University of Buenos Aires rendered futile the continuance of a professional school which required extensive laboratories, large chemical facilities, and great hospitals. The school of law was incorporated into the broader faculty of social and juridical sciences, in which law is but one section running parallel with a teachers' college and a college of philosophy and arts, while above the three sections is an advanced course leading to the degree of doctor. The engineering school is organized on a different plan from that usually followed in South America, and scientific study occupies a large place. The natural sciences, so called (chemistry, botany, zoology, geography, etc.), are grouped in one faculty that offers courses varying in length from three to five years, and the physical, mathematical, and astronomical sciences comprise another faculty with several lines of study ranging from two to six years in length. The school of natural sciences prepares pharmacists and professors of the respective sciences; the school of physical sciences prepares civil, electrical, mechanical, and architectural engineers, and professors of mathematics and physics. The pedagogical character of the university is very marked. Its avowed policy is to train scientists, scholars, and teachers, rather than lawyers, pharmacists, and engineers. Its aim is scholarly—not professional, and its organization is planned to produce this result. In the traditional university of Spanish America social sciences are studied only in the law school with the view of their application to jurisprudence; natural sciences are pursued only in the medical school for their bearing on medicine; and physico-mathematical sciences are found only in the engineering school. In the various faculties the tendency is to put the application of the science above the science itself. In La Plata the policy is exactly the opposite; the subject comes first, and, above all, scientific method is insisted upon whether the studies are natural, physical, social, or juridical sciences.

The institutions of higher learning in Latin America can therefore be classed historically as colonial and clerical, national and provincial. Every effort to understand their organization and spirit must start with the colonial type, since the national universities were originally but a secularized form of the old institutions. It is true that the emphasis was shifted from philosophy, letters, and theology to jurisprudence and later to medicine and science, but the organization remained much the same, while methods of instruction and the academic spirit evolved but slowly. The same type of organization and the same ideals have passed into the provincial universities, so that these are only miniature copies of the larger educational centers. This does not imply that educational ideals have remained stationary since colonial times. It means simply that evolution has been gradual, that much of the old is still evident in the institutions of to-day, and that the present conditions, methods, and ideals can be understood and explained only by an acquaintance with the former types. In the University of La Plata only has tradition been disregarded, but even here it has unconsciously molded many policies.

CHAPTER II.

STUDENTS, STUDIES, AND DEGREES.

Enrollment.—The rapidly increasing enrollment in institutions of higher learning is a phenomenon as striking in several countries of Latin America as it is in the United States. The only difference is that in the latter country the faculty of letters, philosophy, and pure sciences shares in the increase, while in the former the drift is wholly toward the professional faculties. Chile, with a population of only 3,000,000, enrolls annually almost 2,000 students in the national university and upward of 700 in the Catholic University, a gain of 50 per cent in a decade. Argentina, with a population of 7,500,000, enrolls in her four universities 7,000 students, of whom about 5,000 are matriculated in the University of Buenos Aires alone. A quarter of a century ago the total university population was less than 800 and the enrollment at Buenos Aires 600. At Lima there are 1,100 students in the university and in the detached schools of engineering and agriculture, while the three provincial universities of Peru add about 400 more. In Brazil the number of law and medical students is disproportionately large, and the Government is seeking some practicable method of checking the constant increase. In the four greatest faculties of law (Sao Paulo, Recife, and the two at Rio de Janeiro) the annual matriculation approaches 3,000. The two national faculties of medicine (Rio de Janeiro and Bahia) enrolled last year 2,245 students in medicine, 461 in pharmacy, and 423 in dentistry. The lesser schools of law and medicine, located in the smaller centers and patronized by the States in which they are situated, will increase very considerably the number of students. Complete statistics to date are not available, but it is probable that in the entire Republic of Brazil there are no less than 4,000 students of law, and an even greater number in the schools of medicine, pharmacy, and dentistry. Other Latin-American nations in proportion to their population show a large student enrollment, and the number is everywhere a surprise when one considers the economic, social, and racial disadvantages under which some countries labor. It must be remembered, too, that the figures include only students of real university rank, since admission to the university or to the independent professional faculty is invariably based on the completion of the secondary school curriculum. In fact the liceo diploma is not always sufficient in itself; some universities insist on their own examination in addition, not for the purpose of requiring more than the secondary school offers, but merely to insure that the preparation satisfies the university standard.

Secondary schools.—Secondary education in Latin America usually covers six years and is based on an elementary school course of equal length. In a few countries the elementary course extends over seven years, and in some the secondary school is reduced to five. The two school periods never exceed 12 years, and in some nations comprise but 11. It is not the province of this work to treat of secondary schools, but in order to define somewhat the university entrance requirements it may be said that the Latin-American high school offers less in mathematics and considerably less in laboratory science than the corresponding institution in North America, but, on the other hand, it regularly includes such subjects as psychology, logic, political economy, and philosophy. In very few countries are the ancient classics taught, but everywhere much importance is given to modern languages, and at least two are included in every high-school course that leads to the university. The secondary school curriculum is therefore comprehensive, and the student should enter the university possessing a reasonably broad mental vision. The age of the liceo graduate is about the same as that of the American boy when he finishes the high school. The Latin American is perhaps superior in breadth of vision, cosmopolitan sympathy, power of expression, and argumentative ability, but, on the other hand, perhaps inferior in the powers of analysis and initiative and in the spirit of self-reliance.

The university faculties.—The full complement of faculties in a Spanish-American university comprises letters and philosophy, theology, law, medicine, and science or engineering, to which is sometimes added agriculture. However, in many institutions the faculty of letters and philosophy has ceased to exist; in others it is, in reality, a higher normal college, as in Chile and Argentina. In Peru, although still of full university rank, this faculty has become to a considerable extent a special preparatory course for students of law, who are required to complete two years of work in the faculty of letters before they enter upon their legal studies. Generally, therefore, the Spanish-American university contains only professional schools. Of these theology, the first and most important in the old universities, has been almost everywhere eliminated. With the passing of the universities in the nineteenth century from the control of the church to that of the state, and with the ever-growing sentiment among the ruling classes in favor of complete separation of church and state, the faculty of theology in national universities no longer offered sufficient guaranties for the orthodox instruction of the clergy. In its place, bishops founded diocesan seminaries for the training of priests, and the archbishop established a *gran seminario* for advanced study. The faculties were then left without students. Most universities retain, however, the empty name. Some note that the studies in this faculty are done in the archbishop's seminary and in States where the relations between church and state are still cordial, students from the seminary occasionally present themselves before the university faculty to receive the degree of doctor of divinity, but more often they go, or are sent by the prelate, to Rome to complete their theological studies and to receive there the final academic sanction. Taking into account these deductions, it will be observed that the university of to-day usually comprises in reality only the schools of law, medicine, and engineering. In many countries the department of agriculture is an entirely separate institution, but always of university rank.

Degrees and examinations.—The student is usually a bachelor of letters or science when he enters the professional school, since in Latin America these degrees represent the completion of secondary studies as they do in France and some other European countries. In many law faculties there is an intermediate degree of bachelor of laws, which may be obtained after about three years of study. It is a purely academic distinction, as it does not mark the end of legal studies and does not confer the privilege of practicing the profession. It is a traditional custom and is universally recognized as superfluous.

The final university degree in each faculty is that of doctor; Chile alone confers no doctorate or similar title of distinction, but grants a simple certificate of graduation with the corresponding professional title of *medico*, *abogado*, etc. In common usage, however, a physician in Chile is spoken of, and to, as *doctor*. In Central America the title of a law graduate is not *doctor*, but *licenciado*, following the old Spanish nomenclature, and despite the awkward length of the appellation, its use is required in formal address and in print.

The right to practice a profession is conferred by the university or professional faculty. The graduate may have some additional forms to observe, but they are only forms and imply no further examination. This usage, which differs from that of the United States, arises from the fact that in the latter country the university is merely a corporation chartered by the State for the purpose of instruction. In Latin America it is a part of the civil administration, and is empowered not only to instruct, but also to license professional men.

In countries where the doctorate is conferred in law and scientific faculties, it is not always synonomous with the professional title. The latter is *abogado*, *ingeniero*, *arquitecto*, or *agronomo*, while the doctorate of laws or sciences is conferred as the result of a second examination presupposing advanced and additional studies. In the law school, however, the student usually strives to become a *doctor* and can often win this degree in the same time that is allotted for the acquisition of the professional title. The University of La Plata is battling against this tendency in Argentina by compressing the regular law course into four years (instead of five or six years, as usually required) and demanding two additional years of strictly postgraduate studies for the doctorate.

The departments of pharmacy and dentistry everywhere grant only the professional titles of pharmacist (farmaceutico) and dentist (dentista).

In all departments of the university the degree or professional title is conferred only after an oral, public examination before a committee of the faculty, usually presided over by the dean, but in the smaller institutions by the rector. The examination may cover the entire range of studies pursued by the student in the department. A printed thesis is also required for the doctorate and usually for the lesser degrees and professional titles. Often the examination consists chiefly in the defense of the thesis. These examinations and degree-conferring practices have been inherited from Europe and have undergone little or no change for centuries. Although the final examination is comprehensive and may cover the entire range of studies, oral examinations are held at the end of each year in each subject, and a student can not proceed to a higher class unless he passes the examinations of the year. The year-end examinations are also held before a committee of the faculty. A student is passed (aprobado), conditioned (desaprobado), or failed entirely (reprobado). A conditional student is given the opportunity of taking another examination before the opening of the succeeding year. No tests are given during the year. Written examinations are not in favor. Occasionally they have been tried, but always abandoned. The oral examination conducted by a *jury* composed of at least three members of the faculty is the only form that satisfies students, professors, and parents.

Academic honors.—The title of doctor, little matter in what department it is earned, is highly esteemed in Latin America. Its possession confers social distinctions and, if it be in law, a decided political prestige. It was for this reason and in the hope of promoting democratic ideals that Chile abolished university degrees altogether. Notwithstanding this action, the prestige of a university education abides there as elsewhere. Sons of upper-class families are expected to study medicine or law whether they intend to practice the profession or not. In fact, a very large proportion do not, and either remain landed proprietors or devote themselves to some form of public life, politics, diplomacy, or journalism. The faculties of engineering and agriculture do not receive the same uniform aristocratic patronage, and their degrees are considered less ornamental and more utilitarian.

Methods.—In all the faculties the lecture method is used almost exclusively, even in the first years, and there is no control of the student's application to study save the year-end examination. There are no quizzes, no mid-term tests, and promotion depends entirely on the oral examination. Even attendance at lectures is largely a matter of option. It is true that the university prescribes that a student absent from a certain proportion of lectures or laboratory exercises can not come up for examination at the end of the year, but as "reasonable excuses" for absence are admitted the rule becomes exceedingly flexible.

CHAPTER III.

UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION.

In its internal organization and administration the Latin-American university has adhered closely to the traditional system adopted in the first ecclesiastical universities and copied by them from southern Europe. Within certain bounds it is autonomous, making its own internal regulations, defining the details of its work, and fixing its own requirements, providing they do not conflict with the national school laws. Every educational institution, whether university, normal school, or other special institution, has two sets of regulations. The one is general, defining the form of its organization, duties of its officers, scope of its work, and general scholastic requirements. This code is formed and promulgated by the executive authority of the State. The other set of regulations is for the internal government of the institution and is drafted by the institution itself. It must be in harmony with the State regulations, but can take into consideration local conditions. There is no intermediary between State and university, no board of trustees, curators, or regents. Officials and professors receive their commission directly from the chief executive, through the minister of public instruction. The rector, vice rector, secretary, and treasurer are either appointed by the Government, or, if elected within the university, the choice must be confirmed by the President of the Republic. Their terms of office are short; in some institutions they may be reelected or reappointed indefinitely, but more often the offices rotate among the professors. The internal government of the institution is vested in a council composed of two or three members from each faculty and presided over by the rector. The council is formed sometimes by election, sometimes by governmental appointment. Each faculty has also its council, presided over by the dean. In general it may be said that the smaller the State and the institution the closer the governmental control; in the larger universities it tends to become a matter of form. In spite of the direct and intimate dependence of the university upon the State, very rarely does political domination interfere with the legitimate functions of instruction.

Professors and tenure of office.—The final, formal appointment of professors is made in much the same way as that of the officers, viz, election within the university itself and confirmation by the State. A common method is for the faculty to nominate through the rector to the minister of public instruction three eligible candidates. Sometimes the faculty has the right to indicate its preference. Once appointed, the professor is not removable except for neglect of duty or misconduct duly proved. The chair is spoken of as the property of the professor (propriedad del catedratico), a phraseology which has descended from an epoch when only few professorships were filled for life, the others being thrown open every few years and refilled after a competitive examination (oposición). In those days life tenure was an unusual honor, and a professorship *en propriedad* was a distinction. The distinction no longer exists, but the honorary phraseology remains. In many States of Latin America the tenure of the teacher's office is rigorously guarded, sometimes even to the extent of producing ridiculous situations. It is told that in one case a professor was duly appointed to teach a certain branch in a designated institution. Later the subject was discontinued in that school and the Government proposed to transfer the teacher to another where the subject was retained. He refused to be transferred, alleging that his appointment was for the designated school only; he appealed to the courts, the appeal was sustained, and the teacher has since spent his time pleasantly in Europe, while continuing to draw his stipulated salary.

Teaching hours per week.—In order to appreciate the position and duties of a Latin-American university professor, as well as the manner of his selection, some explanations are necessary, since in all these matters there is wide divergence from North American practices. First of all, it must be noted that in Spanish America a professorship is limited not merely to a single subject, but to *one single general course* continued throughout the year. If a subject runs through two or more years, each year constitutes a separate professorship and is usually taught by a different instructor. In some universities a class meets every day; in others, but three times a week. A professor's hours therefore are at the most six per week, more often but three. In the case of foreign professors "contracted for" abroad, and also for certain special professorships, especially in medical schools, the hours per week devoted to instruction exceed the maximum given above, but the statement in its generality is nevertheless correct. In those institutions where the three-hour course is in vogue, a professor may occupy two chairs, but this is unusual. So strong is the tradition in favor of single chairs that often the limitation has passed into legal statute.

No teaching profession.—The next consideration to be noted is that teaching in the universities is not a distinct profession. This may be the cause or the result of the regulation forbidding plurality of chairs. In either case the condition remains to the serious detriment of higher education. Teaching but three, or exceptionally six hours, per week the professor's stipend is naturally too small to constitute a livelihood. There are, therefore, no professors, not even the officers of the institution, who devote their entire thought and activity to teaching. In the law faculty the teachers are practicing attorneys, judges, editors, or Government administrative officers; in the medical faculty they are practicing physicians, pharmacists, dentists, and amateur scientists; in the engineering school, practicing engineers, pharmacists, architects, and surveyors; in the faculty of letters and philosophy (where this faculty remains), lawyers, editors, and publicists. Where the faculty of science exists apart from the engineering school, the natural science chairs are occupied by pharmacists, the biological by physicians, and the mathematical by engineers. Arguments can be adduced in favor of filling some chairs in professional schools with men who are also engaged in the active practice of their profession, but the universal custom as followed in Latin America presents serious disadvantages. It is perhaps less fruitful of evil in the law school than elsewhere, and as this was the first of the modern secular faculties to be developed, and the real nucleus of the university, the custom of to-day is perhaps but the extension to other schools of a practice which, although pernicious in its present general application, was not wholly inappropriate in its original form. What is still more disastrous at present, and contrary to the basic principles of pedagogy, is the extension of the practice to the secondary school, as is the case in most countries. Here, too, the subjects are subdivided into many chairs, and the professors are drawn, according to the nature of the chair, from the various professions. They may and usually do know their subject, but as teaching is not their profession few make any effort to learn how to teach. The lamentable result is that pupils receive instruction in a form that frequently defies assimilation, and which fails to become education in the best sense of the term.

Duties of a professor.—The limited duties and responsibilities of a professor, compared with those of his North American colleague, are a natural corollary to his divided interests. He reports in the secretary's office before the daily or triweekly lecture and signs the roll as proof of attendance. The lecture given, he returns to his office and resumes the practice of his profession. He conducts no quizzes, gives no tests during the year, and consequently has no examination papers to engage his attention. At the end of the scholastic year he does duty on the oral examination commissions, and at times throughout the year he may be drafted for service at special examinations. In both instances responsibility is shared with two colleagues. Unless he is a member of the council in his faculty or of the central university council, he has nothing to do with the administration of the institution, and even service on the councils is not onerous. The hour with the class is in no sense a recitation; the professor simply lectures, and beyond this he assumes no responsibility for the progress or application of his students. Repeating as he does year after year the same course, the professor has every temptation to stereotype his matter and even the form of its presentation. The system instead of producing specialists, which is the reason urged in its behalf, seems to tend rather to fossilize both the subject and the instructor. If the subject includes laboratory exercises, these are supervised by a laboratory director. The time, thought, and attention that the professor gives to the university and its work is therefore limited, and necessarily so, since the university claims little and pays accordingly.

Professional prestige.—On the other hand, the position confers a distinct honor on the holder, gives him prestige in his profession, and puts him before the public in a favorable light. It is a known stepping-stone to political preferment. For these reasons it is often possible to fill the professorial chairs with distinguished men from the very best families of the nation, who, if they are not primarily educators, yet possess a reputation for scholarship and general ability, and a prestige that dignifies the lecture room and commands the respect and often the admiration of the students.

Methods of choosing a professor.—The position of professor in a Latin-American university, his limited duties and responsibilities, the methods of instruction, and the importance given to examinations explain many points in the university organization and administration that appear anomalous to a foreigner. But upon no point do they throw more light than upon the system employed for filling a vacant professorship. These systems show considerable variation, but the principle upon which each is based is the same. Since the professor is not primarily a teacher, the question of scholarship is the only point considered, to the exclusion of teaching experience, personality, and didactic ability. Moreover, as the chair includes but one subject, or even a part of a subject, the scholarship test is limited to a narrow scope. It is specialization in the strictest sense of the terms.

An ancient custom—The final appointive act is the prerogative of the Government, but the initiative usually belongs to the university. In no case does the rector or dean have the exclusive privilege of nomination, much less of choice. The form of procedure is derived historically from the old system of *oposición*, which operated as follows: Notice of the vacancy was published in accordance with a prescribed form, and the date was announced when applicants would be heard. The candidates assembled in the presence of the faculty or a committee of that body and proceeded to examine each other in the subject for which a professor was sought. Each tried to propound questions that his rivals could not answer, but which he could readily resolve himself. Members of the faculty could also put questions to each of the candidates in turn. After this intellectual tournament, that candidate was chosen who had best parried the thrusts of his rivals and whose own intellectual armor exhibited the fewest dents.

A modified system.—This ancient procedure is now happily obsolete, but a modified form of the "opposition system" is still used in some Latin-American institutions. Candidates for the vacant professorship appear before the faculty at the same time, but instead of putting and answering questions each in turn presents a detailed program of the course as he would give it, enumerating the topics in the order he thinks they should be presented to the class and offering whatever remarks and explanations he may desire. Each program is criticized by the other candidates, also by members of the faculty, and the author is expected to defend his position. The candidate is then assigned a topic from his program and allowed a certain time, usually 24 hours, to prepare the lesson. This lecture is given in public, and the faculty, or a committee appointed by the faculty, judges the candidate's ability to present clearly, logically, and happily his subject. This system, while savoring much of the ancient *oposición*, gives some consideration to the pedagogical aspect of the question. Since a professor gives but one single course and the lecture method is the accepted form of instruction, it is important that the instructor have a logical program and a convincing address. The system, however, has grave defects, and its disadvantages have been tersely stated in a recent report of the rector of the University of Arequipa. He argues that the program submitted may not be original; at the best it must be modeled upon others, and in either case is no adequate criterion of the author's knowledge of the subject, while the oral lesson is more a test of oratory than of pedagogy.

A further modification.—Even this modified form of *oposición* has fallen into disfavor in the larger universities, and a further modification has been instituted. The candidates for a vacant chair submit to a committee of the faculty a record of their scholastic achievements, a list of their publications, and also a detailed topical program such as has already been described. There is no confrontation of the condidates. The committee is composed of those professors whose chairs are most closely related to the one to be filled. It examines the records, publications, and programs in private sessions and reports its findings to the faculty. The oral lesson is retained, but only the candidate whose scholastic attainments best

A. NATIONAL LIBRARY, RIO DE JANEIRO.

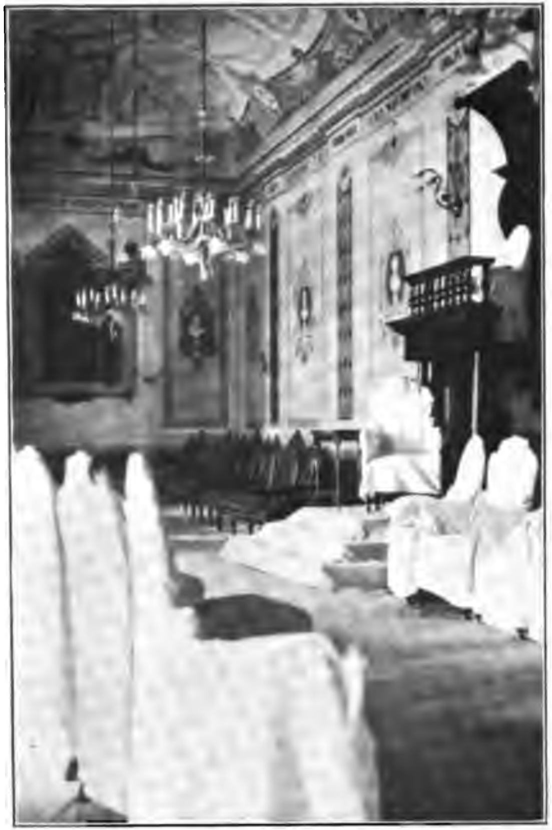
B. SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS AND ART MUSEUM, RIO DE JANEIRO.

A. OLD SEMINARY AT SAN JOSE, COSTA RICA.

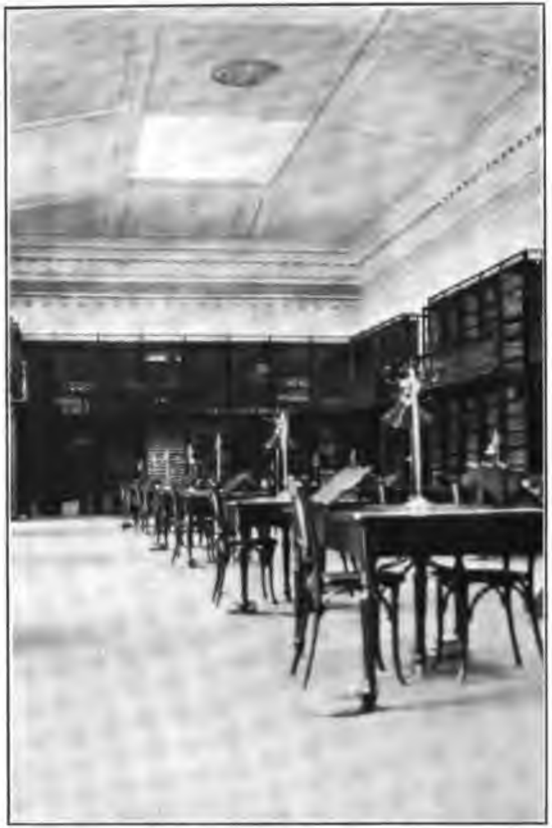
B. BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL, RIO DE JANEIRO.

A. PATIO OF THE BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL AT LA PAZ, BOLIVIA.

B. THE NATIONAL COLLEGE, ASUNCION, PARAGUAY.



A. "SALON DE ACTOS," UNIVERSITY OF CORDOBA, ARGENTINA.



B. READING ROOM IN THE LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CORDOBA, ARGENTINA.

meet the judgment of the committee is invited to give the public lecture, which, in fact, is commonly regarded as a mere form—an empty tradition.

The substitute professor.—A further departure from traditional methods is observed in the tendency to apply the last-named procedure to the selection of the substitute professor (el suplente), who succeeds as a matter of course to the chair in case it becomes vacant. The substitute professor is a constant element in most Latin-American faculties, and the position is not in the least anomalous when it is remembered that the regular professor is lawyer, physician, engineer, or publicist, and that the exigencies of his profession may at times prevent him from fulfilling his duties as professor. These reasons make it advisable, if not absolutely necessary, to have another ready to take up the work. The substitute when chosen may not, and usually does not, have any regular duties. He simply holds himself in readiness to assume the class in case the *catedratico* through absence, sickness, or other reason is unable to give the lectures. The position is an honorable one in itself and places the occupant in a favorable position in case of a vacancy, even in those institutions where the succession is not fixed by university statute.

Government confirmation.—In all cases the successful candidate is still subject to confirmation by the State authorities. The recent reform of higher education in Brazil will make an exception there to this custom. The new Brazilian law grants to individuals and societies the right to incorporate for the purpose of founding universities independent of the State. The corporation, within certain well-defined and necessary limitations, can prescribe the course of study and the length of the term, elect the professors, and expend its revenue in the manner it chooses. The law puts higher education on much the same basis as in the United States and is in direct contrast with the older and prevalent Latin-American policy of governmental control and monopoly. The traditional custom has had the advantage of preventing the unlimited creation of professional schools, and Brazil may witness under the new law the foundation of mushroom medical and engineering schools lacking scientific equipment and granting unworthy certificates of graduation. Federations of sovereign States, such as Brazil and the United States, necessarily experience legal difficulties in establishing uniform national regulations.

Decentralization in the universities.—In enumerating the institutions of higher education in Latin America repeated reference has been made to both universities and independent faculties, and it was stated that some countries adhered to the first system and others to the second. As a matter of fact, this distinction exists more in name than in fact, and everywhere the faculties are to a very large degree independent each of the other, and all of the central organization. The university is a loose federation of separate schools, and the larger it becomes the greater is the centripetal force.

In the North American University the administrative officers, as distinct from the professorial staff, constitute a strong element of unity. President, secretary, and registrar belong equally to all departments and give their entire time to the interests, scholastic and financial, of the institution. The president especially is a bond of union. He is a man of more or less eminence, an educational leader, an authority, not in a single line of letters, politics, or science, but in the broader field of educational and administrative policies. The Spanish-American university has a different type of organization. Its officials are little more than professors. They give but little time to the work of administration, because under the system there is little to be done. The rector is a lawyer, a physician, or a publicist, as are the professors, and the direction of the university is secondary to the practice of his profession. As he usually occupies the office but for a short term and then becomes simply one professor among many, he seldom acquires during his term as rector any additional prestige. Moreover, he is not expected to become an educational leader. He merely stands at the head of his colleagues for a short time and represents them before the State and the public. In many different ways the absence of a university president is a distinct loss in Spanish-American higher education, but in no respect more than in the unifying influence he might exert in the university organization.

Departments scattered.—Another decentralizing influence in the Spanish-American university is the material separation of the schools. No tract of ground was set aside for future buildings, and as the university outgrew its first home, faculty after faculty was transferred to other quarters, often in quite different and distant parts of the city. In the Universities of Montevideo, Buenos Aires, and Santiago no two faculties occupy the same building, and no two buildings are in the same part of the city. In other universities the same tendency is likewise noticeable, one or more faculties having been forced into other and often distant buildings.

The first always to develop the separatist tendency was the faculty of medicine. From the beginning, its practical work was done in the hospital, and many professors found it convenient to give their lectures there, in improvised classrooms. As laboratories were developed, special buildings were required for their installation, and a separate medical college was erected, if possible in close proximity to the hospital. Following the segregation of the medical school came that of the engineering faculty, accelerated also by the laboratory problem. If a school of agriculture was formed, it must necessarily be located in the country or in the outskirts of the city. Thus widely separated in distance, with students entering the different faculties directly from the liceo without passing through any common faculty of arts and sciences, the various schools had little in common, and it is not to be wondered at that they have grown apart. Each has its dean, who is a rector in parvo, each its secretary, its special library, and its student society. In the large universities the rector and general council do little in the way of general administration save proportioning the annual revenue among the various schools; in other matters the faculties exercise almost complete independence. The tendency is well illustrated historically. Sucre, once the seat of a noted university, now has only separate faculties. The same is true of Guatemala. During several years the University of Salvador was officially conducted as separate schools, and has but lately returned to the university form of organization. The ease with which the change is made from one system to the other shows how loose is the university organization.

Another condition that accentuates the separatist tendency is the lack of a real department of letters, science, and philosophy. A distinguished Chilean describing the University of Santiago writes: "Although the university charter contains all the necessary provisions to make of it a general scientific institution, it is, in fact, no more than a confederation of professional schools whose courses of study qualify the graduate for the profession of lawyer, engineer, etc." The professional schools have nothing in common, and there is no strong central faculty corresponding to the college of liberal arts in the United States.

Academies.—There exists in some universities, notably in Buenos Aires, an institution different in organization and function from anything in a North American university. In each faculty there is an "academy" composed of 25 members chosen among those professors who have served on the faculty council, or who have distinguished themselves in scientific or scholarly research. The latter class must have been in the service of the university not less than 10 years. Membership is for life and the society is self-perpetuating. The duties of the society are to study questions of university policy and advise the administrative officers; to discuss and report on administrative and scientific problems that may be submitted to the society; to maintain the standard of instruction in the faculty; to initiate reforms in the curriculum; and, in general, to strive for the betterment of the university. In so far as the academy touches the administration, it is merely an advisory board to the council. In matters of general scholarship, it is an academy in the ordinary sense of the term. In actual practice, it serves to connect the university with the public, since professors who leave the chair for public service retain their membership in the academy. It advances the interests of scholarship by placing this ideal before professors; and, by the election of honorary members, which is one of its privileges, it enlists the sympathy of scholars in distant parts of the country and serves as a means of communication with learned societies in other countries.

Close relation between the university and secondary schools.—Universities have had no preparatory schools such as formerly existed in the United States and exist still in some localities. However, there was often a close relation between the university and the national liceo of the same city or town that made of the latter a preparatory department to all intents and purposes. In referring in preceding paragraphs to the frequent disappearance of the faculty of letters, philosophy, and pure science, it was stated that its place had been taken in a certain measure by the improved secondary schools. The theory that higher literary studies are not a subject for school methods—a theory developed in France at the time of the Revolution, and tersely expressed by Napoleon in the words: *Le goût et le génie ne peuvent s'apprendre. On comprend un cercle, un salon, même une académie, ou quelqu'un professe et disserte, tout cela s'applique non à l'instruction proprement dite et à l'exercise d'un état special mais à l'agrément de la société*, seems to have been imitated, or spontaneously evolved, in Latin America. The liceo is very generally looked upon as a department of higher instruction, especially if it is a liceo of the first grade, i. e., offering a complete course, covering the full regulation time, and entitling its pupils to the degree of *bachiller*. Very naturally the best institution of this grade is to be found in the capital, or other university towns, and often under the very shadow of the higher institution. Students pass from it directly into the professional faculties. There has not been, and very rarely is there to-day, any actual administrative bond between the two. Each has its own budget, its own officials and professors, and each depends separately upon the department of public instruction. But this mutual relation to the State creates in itself a certain bond, since in the minister's office one bureau is intrusted with both secondary and higher education, while to another is allotted primary and normal instruction.

Material contact.—Material circumstances, too, have served to connect the university with the local high school. In the early days of secular education, when the university was usually small and lodged in some old monastery taken over by the State, the liceo was naturally established in another part of the same vast structure. As the university grew and expanded it was the faculties of medicine and engineering that removed to modern quarters, while the secondary school remained and shared the old convent with the faculty of law and the remnants of the faculty of philosophy and letters. This condition has not yet entirely disappeared, and even where it no longer exists customs engendered by it have nevertheless persisted. Close proximity brought mutual relations. A professor in a faculty not infrequently occupied a corresponding chair in the liceo, and in the public mind both institutions were looked upon as of the same grade.

Movement in favor of preparatory schools.—In administration, however, university and secondary schools continued distinct. It is only recently that a tendency has developed in the university in favor of creating a special preparatory department. The movement is in no sense local, but the manner of effecting the reform has assumed different aspects in different States. Argentina was the first to give the movement tangible form. The policy was strongly advocated by the new University of La Plata, which was founded for the purpose of promoting in Argentina the modern spirit of scientific study, and not as a mere group of affiliated professional schools, as were the old universities. The faculty of La Plata contended that in order to foster scholarly ideals and to prepare its future students for the scientific studies of the university a special preparatory school was a necessity. Accordingly, in 1907, the department of public instruction transferred to the three national universities the liceos of Cordoba, Buenos Aires, and La Plata, to be conducted by them as preparatory departments, while at the same time retaining their character of national high schools.

The liceo of Cordoba, which adjoins the university, had always maintained a close alliance with the higher institution, and the official action of 1907 changed its position more in name than in fact. In Buenos Aires the situation was different, and the difficulties that arose retarded the actual transfer there until 1911. It was urged with reason that if the university required a special preparatory department, it would be better to create such a school; that to combine the two forms of education would denature both; and that the old national high school possessed a history that could ill be lost. In La Plata all was comparatively new, both liceo and university, so that no difficulty was experienced in the change of administration, and the preparatory department has from the first been a decided success.

A similar school for girls was established at the same time. The preparatory departments are not coeducational, but women are admitted to the university proper, and in some departments they enroll in large numbers. The two preparatory schools have their own principals, but these officials are responsible to the dean of the department of pedagogy, and the avowed object of the university is to use the preparatory departments as model schools for its teachers' college. One of the ambitions of the university is to train teachers who will make teaching their sole profession; hence its large interest in its secondary school and its intense desire to make of it a model liceo in all senses of the term. In order to further enhance the utility of the boys' preparatory school, it has recently inaugurated on a limited scale the cottage system. Two cottages have been built, each housing about 35 boys, who live together as a self-governing community, each presided over by a " house father," who is at the same time a professor in the liceo.

As stated above, the three university preparatory departments are to retain the character of national high schools, and their studies are to be so ordered that a student may pass from any national secondary school into the corresponding class of the university school without loss of time or standing. This regulation prevents the universities from arranging the curriculum with the exclusive view of higher education, since the national high-school course is uniform throughout the five years. However, the universities have been permitted to extend their secondary school course to six years, and in the last year they arrange several parallel lines of study adapted to entrance into the various faculties of the university. Notwithstanding these concessions to the universities, the question is still unsettled in Argentina, and the faculty of La Plata at its last convocation voted in favor of a distinct intermediate course between the high school and professional studies.

The Chilean project.—In educational circles in Chile a project is under discussion for organizing a junior university which students may attend for two years following their secondary training. The object of the institution will be to prepare the student for the particular faculty in which he expects to matriculate. The school will have three or four separate and parallel courses; some subjects will be common to all and others will be designed to give special preparation in the line the student elects. This plan, if adopted, would correspond very closely to the practice which now obtains in the best American universities of requiring at least two years in the college before admission to the professional school. It is contended in Chile that for the two years spent in the junior university a corresponding reduction of time could be made in the professional schools without loss to professional training. A further argument in favor of the project is that many separate laboratories now maintained in different schools could be combined, which would result in greater efficiency of laboratory studies and in greater economy of installation and maintenance.

The Uruguayan plan.—Uruguay has already adopted a similar plan, but without attempting to reduce the length of the professional courses. There, as elsewhere in Latin America, a strong effort is making to lessen the number of young men entering the liberal professions, and one of the means employed is to lengthen the time required to obtain a professional title. The Uruguayan reform goes into operation in 1912, but its provisions will not be retroactive, i. e., students who entered the national high school before 1912 will enter the professional faculties under the old requirements. Some years must therefore elapse before the results can be properly judged. The two years of additional studies, to be known as the National Preparatory School, will comprise three lines of study, leading, respectively, to the three faculties of law, medicine, and engineering. Some studies will, of course, be common to all. The faculty will be of university grade, but the work will be done in the national liceo of Montevideo, which occupies a block adjoining the university proper, and with its new building and complete scientific equipment is admirably adapted to inaugurate the new policy.

The problem involved in all these different projects and reforms is the same that has agitated American schoolmen and the public for the past two decades: Can the high school and the university preparatory school be successfully combined? In the United States the question has been tentatively answered in the affirmative, but there is always a likelihood that the vote will be reconsidered. In South America the question is apparently being answered in the negative.

CHAPTER IV.

UNIVERSITY BUILDINGS.

In the matter of material equipment there is a wide divergence of conditions in Latin-American universities. The first universities, founded by the church, adopted the European monastic type of architecture as well as of organization. When, in the nineteenth century, they became secular and national, the State appropriated the buildings as well as the institution, and studies were continued in the same monastic environment. The old monasteries were so solidly constructed and have resisted so well the ravages of time and the elements that many stand to-day as firm as three centuries ago, and still serve for some part of the university work.

Universities and faculties established in the era of national independence or in the decades immediately following were usually housed in monasteries confiscated by the State, and were often less fortunate in their location than the old universities. The latter possessed monastic quarters built for school purposes; the newer faculties were sometimes placed in convents that were not primarily designed for scholastic uses.

Modern buildings for medical schools.—During the past century there has been a fluctuating evolution toward modern conditions—an evolution controlled by the expansion of the university, by the resources of the State, and by interest in higher education. The old cloistered convents were not ill suited to the first studies pursued in the universities. The faculties of philosophy, letters, theology, and law could be conducted without serious disadvantage in the ancient monasteries, but with the rise of medical and scientific faculties not only the increased number of students and professors, but also the very nature of the studies, required enlarged and different buildings. The medical faculty was usually the first favored, and for it were built modern and commodious quarters. In some States this enlargement and modernization of the medical school buildings began a half century ago; in others it has come in the last decades. Even the smaller countries show a lively interest in medical education and have followed the general movement for providing the best material facilities. Uruguay has recently completed a magnificent medical college, built after the most approved plans and furnished with a thoroughly modern equipment. Salvador is building beside her splendid hospital a home for the medical faculty of her university that will reflect great credit on that sturdy little Republic. In general, it may be stated that the Spanish-American medical college of to-day enjoys adequate facilities, and indeed some schools are almost luxuriously housed.

The engineering school.—The formation of a school of engineering, sometimes established as an independent institution, but usually developed from the faculty of pure sciences, demanded more space and different conditions than were afforded in the old university home. A separate building was the natural solution of the new problem, and in this way there frequently came another material growth in the university. The engineering schools can not boast of buildings as palatial as those of several medical faculties, but in all the larger universities they occupy separate quarters and possess the necessary facilities for the prosecution of their work. In those institutions where increase in numbers has not necessitated greatly enlarged facilities the ancient buildings are still much in evidence. The façade may have been changed to present a modern appearance, but within are vaulted roofs and cloistered patios indicative of the history of the building and even of the institution itself.

Notwithstanding the material progress that has marked the past few decades, the demolition of ancient structures and the erection of new ones, there are but few of the older institutions in which some remnant of monastic architecture may not be found. Even in such a thoroughly modern university as that of Buenos Aires it is not wanting. In the center of the irregular block of buildings that constitute the engineering school, surrounded by constructions of comparatively recent date, stands the thick-walled, arch-roofed chapel of a colonial convent, now used as a chemical laboratory.

Modern buildings.—The States have usually been generous in the material equipment of the universities. Interest in higher education preceded, as a rule, the development of primary schools. The first quarters of the universities corresponded adequately to the requirements of the times. With changing conditions the States responded whenever national resources permitted. In proportion to wealth and revenue, the expenditures for buildings and equipment for higher education during the past decades will compare favorably with that expended for the same purposes by North American Commonwealths. Few Latin-American universities have been the recipients of private benefactions. National or local governments have borne not only the current expenses of higher education, but have also provided the original equipment, which represents a very considerable sum. The value of the grounds, buildings, and equipment of the University of La Plata is estimated at $10,000,000. The new medical school of La Paz was provided with a suitable building in 1909 at a cost of

$60,000. A like sum is to be expended in the erection of the new pavilion of the medical college at Lima. Uruguay has appropriated $240,000 for the College of Veterinary Surgery, after having just spent more than a million in new buildings for the National University and the Agricultural College. Thirty years ago Venezuela renovated the old university building at Caracas and added a new wing for the engineering department. More recently a new hospital and special laboratories for the medical school have been erected on the outskirts of the city. Mention has already been made of the new medical college building in Salvador. Some years ago the Medical College of Bahia, in Brazil, was almost entirely rebuilt and enlarged. The Law School of Recife has just taken possession of a magnificent structure. Sao Paulo has provided its Polytechnic Institute with a splendid building and material equipment. The National Government erected one new laboratory for the Medical College of Rio de Janeiro some years ago, and has just appropriated a large sum for the construction of a modern building on the site of the old convent that the school has occupied for a century. These are but examples of what the different Latin-American countries have done and are doing toward equipping their institutions of higher learning. The financial burden involved in this extensive plan of building appears even greater when it is known that the current expenses of the universities are large and the cost per student greater than in the State universities of the United States.

CHAPTER V.

BUDGETS AND SALARIES.

The Latin-American Republics believe so strongly in the efficiency of higher education that they are content to pay the cost however great, and both in proportion to the total revenue and to the amount expended for education of all grades, the sums destined for the universities appear strikingly large. In justification it can be urged that these institutions are something more than mere schools. On the one hand, they are administrative departments of the State, directing and controlling the professions, and, on the other, they partake of the nature of academies fostering general culture in countries where the agencies that make for culture are not as numerous or as pervasive as in older nations. Such functions deserve liberal support from the State.

Reasons for favoring the universities.—The fact that the universities are designed especially for the education of the upper classes is another reason that explains the liberality of the State. The same classes that govern the country profit most from the advantages of the university. However, selfishness is not the only motive for the liberality exhibited, for some States support just as generously institutions for the special education of the lower classes, such as trades and commercial schools. The explanation is rather to be sought in the paternal character of Latin-American government. Private and individual initiative are little esteemed. In every enterprise of importance the State is expected to take the lead. In a matter so transcendent as professional education (and, as previously explained, the universities are almost exclusively professional schools), no power but the State is considered worthy of leadership. Distrust of the church is another impelling influence. The ruling classes all pass through the university, and the Republics desire that they come to their task free from the bias of ecclesiasticism, which unfortunately is considered inimical to republican institutions.

Annual budgets.—The annual appropriation for the current expenses of university education in different representative countries will convey an idea of the generosity of the States in this branch of public instruction. Ecuador expends $125,000, with an enrollment of 340 students. Argentina devotes more than two millions with a student enrollment of 7,000. This figure does not include the income derived by the universities from endowments and matriculation and examination fees. The University of Buenos Aires expends annually about a million, and the University of La Plata a like sum. For the University of Chile the annual current expenses amount to $375,000.

The three professional schools of the University of Montevideo, which enroll about 800 students, receive annually from the State some $250,000, while for the agricultural and veterinary schools there is appropriated $75,000 more. In Mexico the budget for the university at the capital alone in 1911 amounted to $335,000.

Proportional cost and enrollment.—The cost per student is greater than in the State universities of the United States. This fact is explained in part by the virtual absence from the Latin-American university of the college of liberal arts, which in North America includes such a large proportion of the total student population. Professional schools, especially the schools of medicine and engineering, are more expensive both in equipment and maintenance than a faculty of arts. On the other hand, conditions of climate and temperature render the upkeep of the average Latin-American institution much less onerous, and as there is no campus another element of constant expense is eliminated. The fact that there are many institutions with a very small enrollment would tend to raise the average cost per student, but this disadvantage is counterbalanced by the other fact that most of the small institutions are schools of law only, and the law faculty is the least expensive to install and operate.

Large teaching staff.—The real explanation of what appears to be the excessive cost of higher education in Latin America is the form of organization. The personnel is too numerous, from servants and janitors through all the hierarchy up to the administrative officers themselves. The system of dividing instruction into small parts and assigning but one part to an instructor necessitates a large professorial staff, and even if the pay of each is modest the total cost to the institution is greater than if a few devoted all their time to instruction and were paid a liberal salary. In the schools of engineering and achitecture of Santiago there are 400 students and 75 instructors. The schools of medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, etc., enroll some 700 students, while the teaching and administrative staff number about 140. And yet in this respect conditions are better in Chile than in many other countries. In the University of Guayaquil, one-third of the total revenue is spent in administration, and with something fewer than 100 students there are no less than 18 professors.

Few teaching hours.—The conditions of instruction in the Latin-American university do not, however, arise from excessive salaries, but from excessive subdivision of the work and the little time that is required of each instructor. Salaries vary enormously, not so much on their face however as in relation to the teaching hours. Usually they are estimated by the month, and payable for each of the 12 months. A few examples drawn from different countries and representative institutions may be instructive.

Professors' salaries.

Institution.	Salary per month.	Hours per week.
University of Guayaquil	$100	6
University of Cordoba	120	3
University of Cuzco	50	6
University of Buenos Aires	120	3
University of Montevideo	100	3
University of Santiago	100	6
Law faculties of Brazil	250	5

These figures are necessarily approximations, since in some institutions salaries are not uniform. In certain departments they may be higher than in others. There may also be a graduated scale of increase depending on the length of service. In a general table it is impossible to take into account all such details, but notwithstanding these reservations the figures are sufficiently accurate. In striking averages, no account has been taken of salaries paid to foreign professors contracted for by the Government for special service. These men receive much larger salaries and are supposed to give all their time to instruction, investigation, or administration; hence they fall outside the realm of the present comparison.

Some comparisons.—The small salary, the few hours devoted to teaching, the subdivisions in the subjects taught, and the tradition of but one subdivision to a professor are all interrelated parts of a system that seriously hampers university instruction. The professor is assigned few lecture hours, not that he may have time for study and independent investigation, but because tradition, or the law, forbids a plurality of chairs. In a small law school, such as that in the University of Cordoba, there are 2 professors of Roman law, 2 of commercial law, 2 of international law, 2 of legal procedure, and 4 of civil law, i. e., a separate instructor for each year that the subject is studied. If a professor were to confine himself to teaching as his only profession, the salary would be insufficient for a livelihood. He is not underpaid in proportion to the time he gives to the university, but he would be badly underpaid if he gave all his time and received no greater salary than at present. It will be noticed from the table above that in the larger institutions, located in important centers, the average stipend for a three-hour course is $100. If the professor taught 10 or 12 hours (which may be taken as a low average in the North American State universities), a proportionate remuneration would bring his annual salary to $4,000 and upward, which is larger than in similar institutions in the United States. The Spanish-American universities have been slow to see that a teaching profession devoted solely to the one vocation would raise the standard of instruction and at the same time provide a body of scholars that would pursue independent scientific investigations and reflect credit on their countries in the learned world. Few scholarly and scientific works are produced in Latin America, partly because there are no men who can devote their entire time and talents to scholarship or science. The need of such work is felt, but the learned institutions have not shaped their organization in a way to make it feasible. In late years La Plata has done something by emphasizing the scientific spirit, but it is hampered in its struggle by the retention in large measure of the traditional practice of subdivided chairs.

The Uruguayan policy.—It has remained for the University of Montevideo to recognize the root of the evil and to inaugurate a different policy. A law promulgated in 1911 authorizes an increasing scale of salaries for those professors who devote all their time to scholastic pursuits and produce works or conduct scientific investigations of recognized merit. During a period of four years the salary will remain $100 per month, as at present, but after that time it may be doubled if the professor meets the requirements of the law. A second increase of $100 may be granted after a further period of three years, providing the professor continues scholarly work, and even a third is possible after another three years. It will be possible, therefore, for an instructor to attain after a few years a salary of almost $5,000. It will be noted that the teaching hours are not increased; the premium is conditioned solely on "production," although it is stipulated that instruction must be satisfactory. It is reserved for the faculty itself to judge whether a professor meets the conditions of the law, and this decision is controlled by the university council and the rector. It is in this provision that the new policy is probably the weakest, and it remains for experience to show whether the regulation can be administered with justice and impartiality.

CHAPTER VI.

THE LAW FACULTY.

This department has constituted since the beginning of the nineteenth century the veritable nucleus of the Spanish-American university. It differs widely from the North American law school in methods, curriculum, and purpose. The difference is manifested in the very name of the department—Faculty of jurisprudence, as in Peru, Mexico, and other States, or faculty of juridical and social sciences, as in Argentina, Brazil, etc., or faculty of law and political and social sciences, as in Chile and some other countries. In very few countries is the official nomenclature simply "school of law." As the various names imply, the institution is designed to be a school of wider range than the American law school, less practical and more educative, less professional and more philosophical. The predominance of the law school has in recent years been seriously challenged in the largest universities by the faculty of medicine. The enrollment and influence of the latter have increased in much greater ratio on account of the concentration of medical studies in one institution. Law studies, however, are pursued in all universities, not to mention the many separate schools of law. Another reason for the rapid growth of the great medical faculties is the existence of affiliated schools of pharmacy and dentistry. For these reasons the enrollment of students in the medical faculty of Buenos Aires is more than twice the number in law, while in Santiago and Lima the numbers are about equal. Historically, however, the law faculty enjoys a great prestige, and the legal profession is the most aristocratic of all callings.

Physical equipment and libraries.—In the matter of material equipment the law school is the least favored of all the faculties. Since its activities have not developed peculiar physical needs, it has either been retained in the original monastic quarters of the old university home or been relegated to a rented building that has no scholastic atmosphere and is often ill suited to the needs of the school. These undesirable conditions are liable to continue, for the desire of the Governments is to encourage scientific studies, and the moneys available for educational purposes are diverted in this direction. The law school is already too popular.

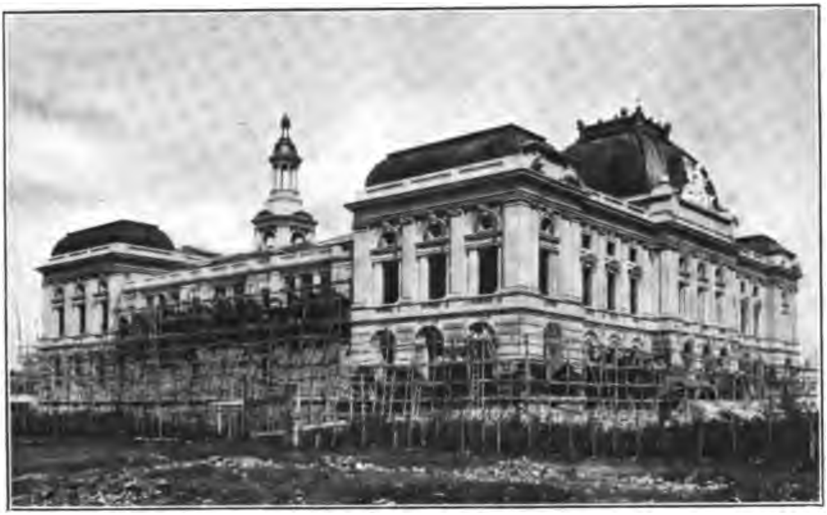
In one particular, however, the equipment of the law faculty is generally good. On account of its long history and the commanding position it has held, the faculty has in many universities accumulated a large library. The collections are frequently housed badly and lack proper classification and a ready catalogue, but the number of volumes is large, and, while it is in administration a department library, on account of the composite nature of the Latin-American law school it is far from being strictly technical. Literary works abound, especially the modern classics of all literatures either in the original or in translation. History is well represented. Philosophy receives large space. Works on economics, finance, and sociology have been added in large numbers in the past decades, while the dependence of Latin-American codes on the Napoleonic digest has led to the acquisition of great numbers of French works, both technical and general, on all phases of law.

Organization.—The variety in names applied to the faculty in different countries arises in part from the existence of two distinct forms of organization. In some States, as in Peru, for example, there are two coordinate faculties—the faculty of jurisprudence, the original school, with a five-year course embracing only legal and juridical studies; and the faculty of political and administrative sciences, with a three-year course comprising economic, constitutional, international, and legislative studies. In other countries, as in Brazil and elsewhere, the two faculties are combined, but very considerable importance is ascribed to subjects of economic and sociological import. The course of study in some countries extends over five years, as in a faculty of jurisprudence, but in others it comprises six. In 1909 the University of Buenos Aires revised the curriculum, retaining six years for the regular course, but adding a seventh for the doctorate of jurisprudence. Brazil has recently increased the law course from five to six years. In the past decade there has been manifest a general movement in favor of lengthening the law course. The limit has probably been reached in Salvador, where the term has been increased from seven to eight years. The avowed object was to render the study unattractive to young men and drive them into vocations of greater utility to the State. It was the same motive that prompted the last increase in Brazil and the additional year for the doctorate in Buenos Aires. The degree of doctor of jurisprudence has long been a special mark of aristocracy in Latin America. In 1912 Honduras forbade further matriculation in her law school for a term of two years, and Ecuador has seriously considered the advisability of closing the law schools entirely for a time.

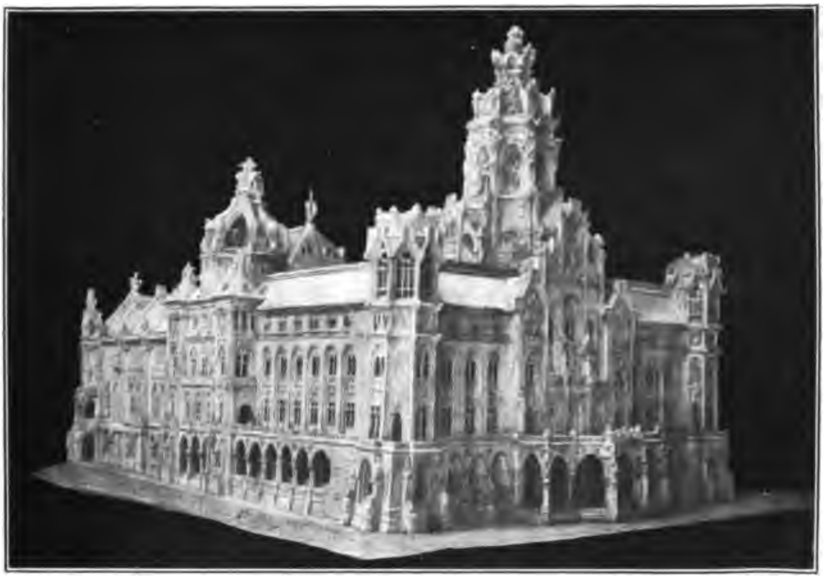
Curricula.—While there is necessarily a considerable uniformity in the curricula of different countries, the differences that do exist are all the more noteworthy, since traditions and ideals have been the

A. GRADUATE SCHOOL FOR MEN, BUENOS AIRES.

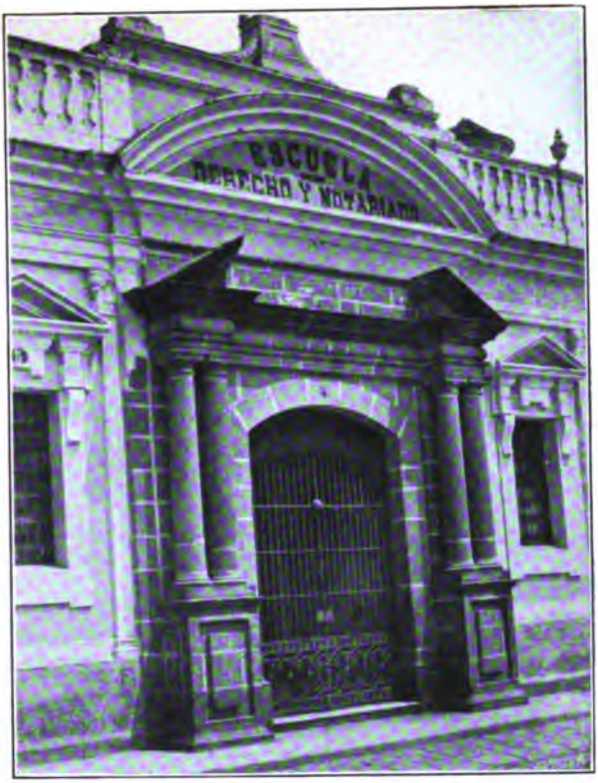
B. VESTIBULE AND PATIO OF THE AMPHITHEATER OF THE NATIONAL PREPARATORY SCHOOL, MEXICO CITY.



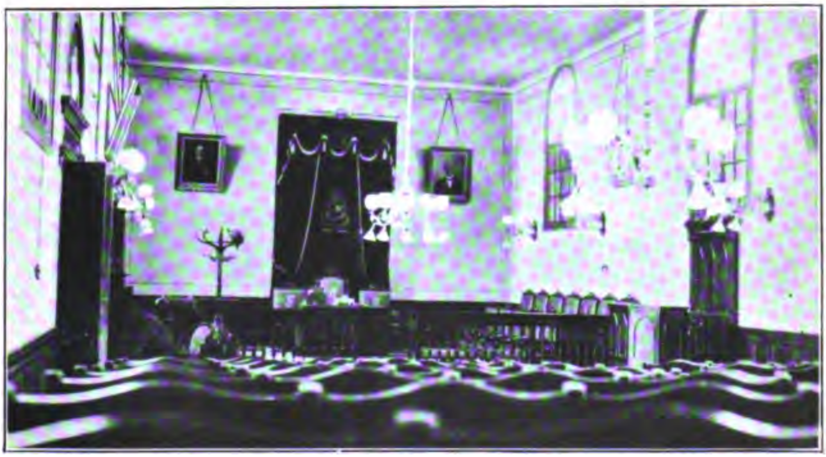
A. THE PERNAMBUCO (BRAZIL) LAW SCHOOL, APPROACHING COMPLETION.



B. NEW BUILDING DESIGNED FOR THE LAW DEPARTMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA.



A. A PORTAL OF THE LAW COLLEGE, GUATEMALA CITY.



B. THE "SALON DE ACTOS" OF THE LAW COLLEGE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SAN MARCOS, LIMA, PERU.

same in all and all have received their greatest inspiration from the one source—the law faculty of the University of Paris.

The three following curricula are representative and give a fair conception of the subjects taught, the order of their presentation, and the time given to each. Three lessons per week may be assumed as the schedule of a course, but in a few schools there are more, as in Brazilian faculties. What the bare curriculum does not indicate is the extent and content of a given subject. These points are portrayed in great detail in the *programa* published for each subject, but the length of these documents excludes their reproduction in a work of this nature; and although they provide a valuable syllabus for the student, they do not always indicate the real content of the lectures.

REPRESENTATIVE LAW CURRICULA.

Sao Paulo.	*Buenos Aires*	*San Jose (Costa Rica).*
FIRST YEAR.		
General introduction to study of law. Public and constitutional law.	General introduction to study of law. Psychology. Roman law (first course).	Civil law (first course). Criminal law (first course). Roman law (first course).
SECOND YEAR.		
International law, public, private, and diplomatic. Administrative law. Political economy and finance.	Roman law (second course). Civil law (first course). Public international law. Political economy.	Civil law (first course). Criminal law (second course). Roman law (second course).
THIRD YEAR.		
Roman law. Criminal law first course). Civil law (the family).	Civil law (second course). Criminal law. Finance. Constitutional law.	Civil law (third course). Commercial law (first course). Public law.
FOURTH YEAR.		
Criminal law (continued). Civil law (real property). Commercial law (first course).	Civil law (third course). Commercial law (first course). Administrative law. Mining, rural, and industrial legislation.	Civil law (fourth course). Commercial law (second course). Administrative law.
FIFTH YEAR.		
Civil law (inheritances). Commercial law (continued). Medical jurisprudence.	Civil law (fourth course). Commercial law (second course). Legal procedure. Philosophy of law (first course).	Civil-law procedure. Political economy. Administrative law.
SIXTH YEAR.		
Theory and practice of legal procedure, civil, commercial, criminal.	Philosophy of law (second course). Legal procedure. Private international law. Practice in legal procedure.	Criminal-law procedure. History of law.

The seventh year required for the doctorate in the University of Buenos Aires contains seven courses, of which the student elects four. The subjects offered are as follows: Comparative history of modern public law, evolution of the institutions of modern private law, general economic evolution, comparative administrative law, organization and functions of public instruction, constitutional history of Argentina, political economy as applied to Argentina.

Aims of the law school.—It will be observed from this list of electives for the doctorate, as well as from the regular curriculum of the three schools given above, that the Latin-American law school lays almost as much stress on the training of public leaders, legislators, and administrative officers as upon the education of lawyers and jurists. It is this policy that has prompted the formation in many countries of the faculty of political sciences by the side of the old faculty of jurisprudence. In such universities the student of law usually takes in addition to his legal studies some or all of the course in the parallel faculty, but the shorter course of three years in the school of political science forms a good education for young men expecting to enter business or public life. It may be even questioned whether a liberal education in political science, political economy, finance, sociology, commercial, administrative, and international law does not constitute a better training for public life than the technical study of law pure and simple. Latin-American schools attempt to provide both forms, either in a combined course or in separate but affiliated faculties.

The training of diplomatic and consular officers is another avowed function of these schools. The separate faculties of political science place large emphasis on this feature of their work, while some of the other institutions offer a special course for this express purpose. The law school of Buenos Aires contains a special department extending over two years with four courses in the first year and five in the second. They include civil, constitutional, maritime, and international law, diplomacy, political economy, finance, statistics, tariff and consular legislation, and consular notary usages. In other institutions that do not maintain a distinct division for this purpose a student will find all the necessary courses for the training he desires and can select what he requires without being a candidate for a degree.

Another department in the school of Buenos Aires is a two-year section for training in administration. This division involves the giving of but one or two special courses; the others are selected from the regular curriculum.

All schools of law in Latin America include a department for the training of notaries, which is a distinct profession, as in France and other European countries. The course is almost uniformly of three years, embracing most of the strictly legal courses but omitting the studies in the history and philosophy of law and jurisprudence. It is to all intents and purposes a practical course in law, and, with the exception of studies in criminal law, pleading, and moot-court practice, is as comprehensive a study of law as that offered formerly in the United States in the two-year law schools.

Practical training minimized.—The courses in legal procedure are both theoretic and practical, but the tendency here, as in Latin-American instruction of all grades and schools, is to put the emphasis on theory. Many law schools frankly admit that in spite of the long course of five or more years they do not aim to prepare the graduate in juridical science for the practice of law. He is expected to acquire skill in the everyday conduct of his profession by serving an apprenticeship in an attorney's office, either during or after his university studies. The law school of the University of Lima requires specifically such an apprenticeship before the degree is conferred. An attorney acceptable to the faculty receives the student into his office and at the end of the apprenticeship attests to the faculty the assiduity and practical experience of the student. Other institutions have similar or equivalent requirements. In Guatemala the student must spend a certain period in one or another of the lower courts studying legal forms. His presence in this case is vouched for by the magistrate. In Venezuela a law student is permitted during the last years of his course to practice in the lowest courts, and in this way he is expected to gain additional practical training. A recent regulation in Colombia requires the law graduate to practice his profession two years before receiving the doctorate.

Bar associations.—The close relationship existing between the law school and the bar association which is implied in such requirements as have just been outlined is everywhere obvious. It is the easier to establish and maintain, since legal education has been a State monopoly. The school is either maintained or subsidized by the Government. In either case the State retains ultimate control. In the case of the Catholic University at Santiago de Chile, which maintains a law faculty, the instruction is given wholly under the direction of the Catholic institution, but students take their examinations at the National University. Each center of importance has its bar association (usually called *Colegio de Abogados*), which is a well-established corporation controlling the practice of law in its locality and closely connected with the law school. It is not surprising therefore that the faculty can make use of local attorneys for the practical training of its students. In some instances, as in Costa Rica, it is the *Colegio de Abogados* that organizes and conducts the law school. The corporation usually receives a small subsidy from the State to aid in its enterprise.

General culture courses.—The law faculty in Latin America performs not only the function of a school of law and jurisprudence, or even that of a school of jurisprudence and social sciences, but it is also an institution of general culture, and in the education of men it takes the place in large measure of the American college of liberal arts. The representative curricula given on a preceding page include such subjects as psychology, sociology, political economy, finance, and political science. Some schools even maintain courses in local history and in Spanish and Spanish-American literature.

Certain other courses uniformly found in the law schools are much less technical and special than their names would perhaps indicate. Roman law often becomes merely a study of the evolution of Roman institutions, an interesting combination of constitutional history and Roman daily life. Likewise, the course in the philosophy of law easily becomes a history of civilization. The utility of all these subjects for a student of jurisprudence is unquestioned, and no criticism of or excuse for their presence in the curriculum is intended. The purpose in enumerating here the subjects and analyzing their nature is merely to emphasize the large nonprofessional element in the Latin-American law curriculum. In the school of Buenos Aires it will be observed that fully one-third of the subjects are of this character. The decadence of the faculty of letters and philosophy in most universities is coincident with the development of a liberal curricula in the law school, but it would be difficult to prove whether this decadence was historically the cause or the result.

As constituted to-day the faculty of jurisprudence is almost as much cultural as technical. Unless a young man purposes to follow a scientific career, he will find in the law college a happy combination of liberal, legal, and civic studies that afford a cultured, civic training, and at the same time give him an honored profession that may be applied either in legal practice or in public life. The nature of the course, as well as social conditions, explains why so large a percentage of law graduates do not follow the regular practice of the profession. The proportion varies in different countries. It is commonly estimated at 50 per cent, but sometimes as high as 80. No accurate study has apparently been made of the question, and formal statistics have not been compiled.

Duration of studies and methods of instruction.—The composite nature of the curriculum accounts also for the length of the course. A minimum of five years (except in La Plata), extended to six in several countries and even to eight in one, is out of proportion to the time allotted to legal studies by most nations, and also out of proportion to the time prescribed for scientific professions in Latin America. The well-to-do students, who constitute the great majority, do not object to the long course, and the few who can ill afford to spend so much time in acquiring a profession can elect the shorter course of practical law and content themselves with the title of notary. As indicated by the curricula cited, the subjects are taken up in a leisurely manner; only three per year in Brazil, four in Argentina, and three in Costa Rica. The lectures to be attended each week are therefore usually 12 and sometimes not more than 9 (in Brazil, however, 15). As they are not followed by quizzes they may be more or less neglected by the careless student who can compensate for his everyday negligence by skillful "cramming" for the year-end examination. Every course of lectures is supplemented by a printed *programa* enumerating each and all the several topics on which the lecturer will touch. This constitutes an invaluable syllabus for a diligent and inquiring student. By attending lectures with even a moderate degree of regularity, and by pursuing parallel courses of reading, the student can acquire during the long course of study of the law school great breadth of learning in both technical and liberal studies. On the other hand, the lack of control through recitations and through frequent quizzes encourages the careless student to neglect his opportunities and waste his time. As he almost invariably enters the law faculty directly from the secondary school, he possesses neither the age nor the experience in independent study consistent with the method to which he is now subjected. The "case system," or any modification of it, is not used in Latin America. Instruction is systematic and deductive.

The prominence of the lecture method, with the corresponding neglect of recitations and quizzes, has an influence beyond the law school in another branch of public education where its utility is less defensible. Many teachers of history, geography, literature, philosophy, etc., in the secondary schools are graduates of the law college. They are naturally prone to apply in the secondary school the same method of instruction in which they themselves were trained in their legal studies, and whatever may be thought of the lecture method in professional schools it is certainly ill adapted to schools of lower rank.

Advantages of the law curriculum.—The law school considered purely as a liberal arts college, as in fact it is for many of its students, presents a decided disadvantage in that it contains no studies in mathematics and in natural and experimental sciences. As at present constituted, it gives the student's mind but one bent, i. e., toward the so-called cultured studies. If he is not to practice law (and many do not), if his education is to fit him for useful service in society, this usefulness would be much enhanced by a training in which social sciences were more evenly balanced with experimental sciences, and especially by a more appreciative attitude toward scientific activities which are the basic element of industrial and economic progress.

Considered, however, as a law school or as a school of political science, the composite character of the curriculum presents many advantages. For the lawyer it tempers the asperities and technicalities of legal procedure with a broadening insight into social institutions, an ideal of social equity and a comprehensive conception of political organization and administration. For the future citizen and man of public life it limits Utopian theories by the knowledge of social evolution and the conservative influence of legal codes.

The La Plata plan.—The curriculum of the law faculty in the University of La Plata has already been referred to as exceptional. Its peculiar characteristics are the shortening of the term, the more strictly professional nature of the course, and the longer time and greater importance given to the studies for the doctorate. The professional course is condensed into four years by the omission of several nonprofessional studies, such as political economy, statistics, etc., by the exclusion of certain theoretic subjects, such as the philosophy of law, and by greater intensity in the work. Instead of three or four courses a year, La Plata requires four and five. For purposes of detailed comparison the full curriculum is inserted:

First year: Sociology and history of Argentina, history of Roman law, constitutional history of Argentina, and Argentine civil law.

Second year: Argentine civil law (continued), Argentine commercial law, administrative legislation, constitutional law, public documents and records.

Third year: Comparative civil law, comparative commercial law, industrial and rural legislation, Argentine criminal law, local public law (rights, privileges, and duties of the Argentine Confederated Provinces).

Fourth year: Comparative civil law (continued), judicial organization (civil and commercial law procedure), judicial organization (criminal-law procedure), public international law, private international law.

It will be noticed that the curriculum is more concrete. It begins with the facts of history and local codes, reserving for later years comparative studies, while the usual course in the philosophy of law has disappeared entirely. The studies in civil and commercial law occupy only half the time accorded to them in the neighboring University of Buenos Aires. In Latin-American universities in general there is undoubtedly room for greater intensity in study, especially in the law school. Students are tempted to consider their studies as a recreation rather than a business. In this respect the Latin-American university, and most of all the law faculty, resembles the North American college of liberal arts and differs from the professional school where intense application is the rule. The cycle of four years in La Plata leads to the professional title of attorney only. The studies of two additional years for the doctorate are as follows:

First year: Political economy, diplomatic history, comparative legislative law, and theories, criticisms, and comparative legislation in criminology.

Second year: History of representative institutions, political economy, finance, statistics, and economic geography.

The characteristic of this grouping is that practically all the liberal, nonprofessional studies have been reserved for the upper cycle, and that they are subjects that are capable of unlimited and independent investigation. This harmonizes with the general policy of La Plata, which aims not so much to prepare for the professions, but rather to foster scientific inquiry and advanced scholarship.

CHAPTER VII.

FACULTY OF MEDICINE.

Medical education is well ordered in Latin America, and this department of the university deserves great credit. The State has exercised a rigid monopoly, and this fact, joined with the relatively large expense of installing and equipping a medical college, has limited the number of such institutions and has enabled the faculties created to establish good standards of scholarship and to enforce stringent regulations for the practice of medicine. Until the year 1899 Brazil, with its vast territory and (at that time) nearly 20,000,000 inhabitants had only two schools of medicine; even to-day it has but three. Argentina has but two, and would perhaps have but one were it not for historic reasons. Bolivia and Ecuador each maintain two, and Colombia three, which are in part justified by the difficulties of communication in these States, although in Peru, where the distances are as great and the topography of the country as broken, it has been found feasible to concentrate all medical studies in one university. Mexico has six provincial medical schools in addition to the larger one at the capital, and in Venezuela there is a partial school of medicine at Maracaibo, but students go to Caracas to complete their studies and to receive their degree. In no other country of Latin America is there more than a single school of medicine.

Equipment.—The limited number of institutions has enabled the States, even the smallest, to equip the medical schools remarkably well. Almost everywhere the buildings are of modern construction. The school at Rio de Janeiro is the only one of the large institutions that has remained in old monastic quarters, and money has recently been appropriated for the erection of suitable buildings there. In some of the smaller schools, such as Cordoba, Caracas, and others, lectures are still given in the old colonial monastery, but new laboratory buildings have been provided. The laboratories are often found at some distance from the old university, in a quarter of the city more favorable for such studies, and this has proved to be but the first step toward the removal of the entire medical faculty from the old location. At Lima the medical college buildings, four in number, are detached pavilions, but this mode of arrangement is rather exceptional. The usual custom is one large building with one or more interior connecting courts. The large edifice at Buenos Aires is in reality two buildings, since it was erected at different epochs, but although it has two entrances, the façades join and the several interior courts are connected.

In the matter of laboratory equipment conditions are good, and this is the more praiseworthy since the installation and maintenance of laboratories are matters of unusual difficulty. Apparatus and materials must all be imported; the genius of the people is not mechanical, and there is no general predilection for laboratory methods. But in the medical college, either the nature of the profession demonstrates to the student at the very beginning of his career the necessity of practical study, or his teachers succeed in convincing him of the advantages of laboratory experiment and first-hand knowledge. Laboratory study in the school of medicine has such an intimate connection with the practice of the profession that it appeals more strongly to the student than in the secondary school, or even in the engineering college. In many types of education laboratory exercises are simply cultural; in medicine, however, they are wholly practical. Whether it is for these reasons or others, it is an obvious fact that the Latin-American medical student approaches this part of his professional course in a different attitude of mind than that commonly exhibited by students in other schools.

The faculty regulates the practice of medicine.—The faculty of medicine acquires additional dignity and prestige from the fact that it is an administrative body as well as a teaching staff. In the latter capacity it conducts the year-end oral examinations, the final general examination, and passes upon the printed thesis presented by the graduate. Success in these tests secures for the student the academic degree of doctor of medicine. The same faculty as the representative of the State conducts the other examination that entitles the student to the privilege of practicing his profession. The faculty is therefore not subject to the humiliation that may fall upon a North American medical college when a State board of examiners, organized outside the college, rejects a good student and passes a poorer one. The monopoly enjoyed by the college excludes any motive for lowering standards. The faculty is also empowered by the State to make regulations governing the practice of medicine throughout the nation. It possesses therefore a threefold function; it teaches the student, examines the applicant, and directs the practitioner. Physicians educated abroad, or foreigners desiring to practice in the country, must also submit to examination under the same conditions as graduates of the school.

Preparation of professors.—No other profession in Latin America is so well educated. The genius of the race inclines toward liberal and artistic studies, and the physician has not only acquired a fair

A. SCHOOL OF MEDICINE, LIMA, PERU.

B. SCHOOL OF MEDICINE, GUATEMALA CITY.

A. PARTIAL VIEW OF THE NATIONAL COLLEGE AT RIO DE JANEIRO.

B. ANATOMICAL INSTITUTION, CARACAS, VENEZUELA.

A. MEDICAL SCHOOL, BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA.

B. CHEMICAL INSTITUTE, MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY.

modicum of these in the secondary school, but his natural bent of mind and his position in society enables him to continue them in after life. His professional studies on the other hand are distinctly scientific and practical, while the practice of his profession develops psychological acumen and analytical power. This happy blend of cultural, scientific, practical, and philosophical study is not afforded by any other profession in Spanish America.

Moreover, no other profession is as eager for postgraduate study. A physician does not consider that he is entitled to first rank unless he has studied abroad, and a very great number continue at once, or early in their professional career, their studies in one or another of the noted schools of Europe. By far the largest number go to Paris, not only because of the excellence of its faculty, but also because they already know the language more or less perfectly. It is from the ranks of these ambitious practitioners that the chairs of the medical school are filled. It would be difficult to find a professor who has not done postgraduate study in Europe, and, as the going and coming is continuous, the latest ideas in medical education and practice are known in Latin America, and propagated by men who have seen with their own eyes. European theories and methods of professional instruction are consequently followed closely, and, as Paris is the school most frequented, the medical colleges are practically all organized and conducted after the French model. Chile alone has followed German methods, a fact due to the presence of several Prussian professors in the faculty.

Hospital facilities.—Another element that contributes to the excellence of medical studies in Latin America is the advantage of a university hospital. Many of the best schools of medicine in the United States are dependent for clinical faculties upon hospitals that are entirely independent of the faculty. This condition causes serious embarrassment and often prevents the student from receiving sufficient practical training. In Latin America the school and the hospital are both State institutions supported at public expense, and the most natural arrangement is to put at least one hospital under the direct control of the faculty, with the privilege of using others (where there are more than one) as the necessities of the school require. This permits professors to give much bedside instruction, and also makes possible a large amount of hospital experience for all students. Beginning with his third year the student is assigned certain daily duties at the hospital, and during the last two years he serves a practical interneship.

Curriculum.—Nowhere more than in the curriculum of a medical college does a mere enumeration of subjects fail to give an adequate, or even an approximate idea of the value of the instruction. The spirit of the school, the laboratory equipment, the reputation and skill of the instructors, and the facilities for studying and conquering disease are more important elements in establishing the standard of the institution than a mere list of studies. However, a few curricula selected from different parts of Latin America may perhaps aid in giving a just appreciation of medical training. They will, at least, emphasize the long term of years required for the profession and indicate the nature and order of the studies.

Representative Medical School Curricula.

Chile.	*Peru.*	*Venezuela.*
FIRST YEAR.		
Anatomy Botany Physics Chemistry (general) Zoology	Anatomy (descriptive) Medical physics Medical chemistry Medical natural history Clinic (surgical)	Anatomy Biological physics Biological chemistry Histology Microbiology
SECOND YEAR.		
Anatomy Histology Physiology Embryology	Anatomy (descriptive) Analytic chemistry Clinic (surgical) Anatomy (general and microscopical) Embryology	Anatomy Biological physics Biological chemistry Physiology Dissection
THIRD YEAR.		
General pathology Surgical pathology Medical pathology Biological chemistry Pharmacy Bacteriology	Physiology (general and human) Pathological anatomy Pharmacy Clinic (medical)	General pathology Surgical pathology Practice of medicine Clinics (medical and surgical)
FOURTH YEAR.		
Practice of medicine Surgical pathology Medical pathology Therapeutics	General pathology Bacteriology Therapeutics and materia medica Clinics	Medical pathology Surgical pathology Obstetrics Clinics (medical, surgical, and gynecological)
FIFTH YEAR.		
Clinics (surgical and medical) Ophthalmology Hygiene Pathological anatomy	General surgery Topographical anatomy Practice of medicine Clinics (medical and surgical) Dermatology	Medical pathology Tropical pathology General therapeutics and materia medica Hygiene Clinics (medical, surgical, obstetrical, and ophthalmological)
SIXTH YEAR.		
Clinics (surgical, medical, and gynecological) Medical jurisprudence Obstetrics	Clinics (surgical, medical, ophthalmological, and gynecological) Genito-urinary diseases Laryngology	Therapeutical clinic and materia medica Medical jurisprudence Toxicology Clinics (medical, surgical, dermatological and syphilitic)
SEVENTH YEAR.		
Genito-urinary diseases Dermatology Gynecology Laryngology Mental diseases	Clinic of mental and nervous diseases Obstetrical clinic Pediatrics Hygiene Medical jurisprudence Toxicology	

Duration of studies.—The length of the course is always six or seven years, the longer term being required in Chile, Argentina, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and Salvador. In Chile the last year is devoted to specialization; in the other countries it forms part of the general course. In Peru the student is required to spend two years in the faculty of sciences after graduating from the high school before he enrolls in the school of medicine. During this period he studies general physics and chemistry, botany, zoology, and analytical chemistry. These studies are, however, much more theoretical than practical.

In regard to the hours per week and the relative amount of theoretical and practical studies, the schools show considerable variation. At Buenos Aires the total hours per week range in different years from 30 to 36. During the first two years there are 9 hours of lectures; the rest of the time is spent in the laboratories. During the third and fourth years there are 12 hours of lectures and clinics; during the fifth and sixth years, 18 hours; and during the last year practically all the time is given to clinics. At Bahia the average hours per week during the first four years are 25 and during the last two, 32. Throughout both periods theoretical instruction occupies about one-half the time. At Santiago de Chile it is more difficult to estimate the relative time given to the two forms of instruction, because the practical is combined with the theoretical in the class periods, which are more numerous than in the schools just mentioned, while there is much laboratory work in addition.

The subsidiary schools.—A faculty of medicine invariably includes the three related schools of pharmacy, dentistry, and midwifery. The faculty in Chile conducts also a nurses' training school. The profession of midwife is universal in Latin America, although less common in Brazil than in Spanish America. The school of midwifery at Santiago de Chile enrolls about 75 students and that of Buenos Aires between 80 and 90. At Montevideo, where there were but 229 students in the medical course in 1911, the enrollment in the school of midwifery was 38. At Rio de Janeiro, however, in the same year there were enrolled but 10, and at Bahia, 13. The course of study extends over two years, in a few schools over three, and requirements for entrance do not equal those demanded for other courses in the medical faculty.

Schools of dentistry have been established only in the past two decades. In many faculties they are just now being introduced. The course of study is almost uniformly of three years; in Brazil, however, it covers only two years. The growth of the schools has been phenomenal, and dentistry is everywhere a lucrative profession. Although a full secondary-school education is demanded for entrance, dentistry is far from enjoying the academic and social prestige of the medical career. It is regarded more as a business than as a profession, and suffers the disparagement common to all nonprofessional vocations in Latin America.

This is not true of pharmacy, at least not to the same extent. That is an older profession and is so closely allied to medicine that it shares some of its luster. Schools of pharmacy have a relatively large attendance. At Lima there are half as many students of pharmacy as of medicine; at La Paz, one-third; at Santiago, two-fifths; at Montevideo, one-third. At Buenos Aires, however, the ratio is much smaller, being but 1 to 9. The average ratio is 1 to 3 or 4. The entrance requirements are the same as for medicine, and the course of study is regularly three years. In only one or two instances does it include four.

Medical texts and libraries.—Professors in the medical faculties are almost all natives of the country in which they serve. To this extent medical education in Latin America is national. In only a very few schools, notably at Santiago, are there foreign professors, "contracted for" by the Government. However, as stated above, the vast majority of the professors have studied in Europe, and texts and reference books are very commonly in French. Few translations of French are used, since all students having come through the secondary school can read the originals with reasonable ease. Medical libraries are usually well stocked. However, in this day of rapid advance in medical science the number of books is a poor measure of a library's usefulness. The school at Rio de Janeiro possesses a library of 40,000 volumes; that of Buenos Aires, 32,000, including duplicates; that of Santiago, 7,000 in its working library; and other schools have collections in proportion to their size and importance. As every faculty publishes a medical review, it is able to acquire through exchange a large number of medical journals. Likewise, the practice of requiring a printed thesis from each graduate enables the college to exchange with others in all parts of the world that have the same policy. A very large proportion, probably more than 50 per cent, of the works are in French. The librarian of Buenos Aires, in a report published in 1911, states that of the 27,412 works consulted during the previous year 14 were Portuguese, 53 English, 211 German, 1,449 Italian, 4,821 Spanish, 7,148 Argentine, and 13,716 French. A similar report for the medical library of Montevideo gives the following results: German, 154; Portuguese, 231; English, 239; Italian, 1,243; Spanish (i. e., works in Spanish whether from Spain or Spanish America), 2,793; French, 5,816. These figures demonstrate the all-powerful influence of France in medical education in Latin America. The ratio of French treatises to those of other nationalities would be much the same in other countries.

Vacation schools.—The medical schools in Latin America are progressive and jealous of the good reputation of their graduates. In countries of great distances and difficulties of communication, where centers of culture are few and far removed from the university, a country physician has little opportunity and less motive for continuing his studies and keeping abreast of his profession. In order to overcome this tendency to stagnation several countries, led by Chile, which has always shown itself enterprising in all types of education, have founded vacation schools for the country doctor. They are modeled after similar institutions in Germany and have met with considerable success, especially in Chile.

Two needed reforms.—Notwithstanding the progress it has made, frequently under adverse conditions, the Latin-American medical college is in urgent need of two reforms. The first is a better training in science and laboratory method on the part of the student before he matriculates. This desideratum is in a fair way of attainment by the proposed pre-university course already adopted in Argentina and Uruguay and projected in other countries. The other reform is a differentiation between the medical teacher and the medical practitioner. The best part of medical education in Latin America is the clinical instruction, where teaching and professional practice are necessarily combined; the weakest part is in such subjects as chemistry, bacteriology, zoology, etc., and in laboratory instruction. These chairs, like the clinical chairs, are filled by practicing physicians. Such courses could be better given by professional chemists, bacteriologists, etc., who could not only be greater specialists, each in his particular subject than is possible for a physician with a considerable practice, but who could give more time and supervision to the laboratory work of the students. Under the present system this part of instruction is relegated entirely to laboratory assistants, who are also physicians, but of less reputation than the head of the department, and the student is tempted to conclude that laboratory work is less valuable, since it is not important enough to claim the personal attention of the professor. The high standard of excellence attained by the medical faculty of Chile is no doubt due in large measure to the presence of several teaching professors (Germans) contracted for by the Chilean Government, who have taught the purely scientific subjects and exalted the rôle of the scientific laboratory.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ENGINEERING FACULTY.

The Latin-American universities during the past quarter of a century have persistently struggled to confine theoretical education within its proper scope and to develop the practical side. The abstract element had held undisputed sway so long in the dominant faculty of law and social sciences that the battle was waged against great odds. In the teaching of law, long-established tradition and the nature of the subject, which lends itself easily to the lecture method, tended to retain the ancient habits of instruction. In the faculty of medicine much progress has been made. As shown in the preceding chapter, laboratory methods have been adopted everywhere and are in successful operation. To this faculty more than to any other is due the credit of breaking down the ramparts of tradition and bringing into the university modern ideas and modern methods.

Difficulties.—The faculty of engineering, which, both on account of its history and the content of its curriculum should be the most modern of all and the most practical in its methods, has had a severe struggle to free itself from the grasp of tradition and traditional methods. In Latin America certain forces which do not exist in the United States have operated to cause this condition. In the first place the ancient name of the faculty—a name that still remains as the official title—*Facultad de ciencias exactas*, was strongly indicative of the time when physics was simply theoretical and mathematical, and mathematics was pursued not for its practical application but as a form of logic and metaphysics. Derived from such an ancestry, it is not surprising that the engineering faculty should experience unwonted difficulty in freeing itself from abstract ideas and purely theoretical instruction. Another disadvantage which beset the engineering school was the old prejudice on the part of university students as a class against the rough work required in an engineering laboratory of the modern type.

Under these adverse conditions the Latin-American engineering school has developed with the greatest difficulty. The tendency to theoretical instruction born in the old faculty of exact sciences clung to the new school with deadly tenacity and was accentuated by the popular aversion to laboratory methods. Only as the spirit of commercialism and industrialism grew in Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, Chile, and Mexico, and in a lesser degree in the other States, did the engineering school begin to assume its proper position. With the recasting of society that is in progress to-day and with the patriotic fervor for national wealth and aggrandizement that actuates many States, this branch of professional education is at last growing in importance and efficiency.

Material equipment.—By favorable legislation and liberal appropriations many States have done everything possible to advance technical education. In Brazil no less than four new schools of engineering have been founded in the last two decades. The institutions at Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo have good buildings and fair equipment. The old School of Mines has been removed from its inaccessible location at Ouro Preto, and put at the provincial capital, Bello Horizonte, where it is easy of access and furnished with new buildings and additional apparatus. Within the past year Uruguay has given its engineering faculty additional facilities. In Argentina each of the three faculties is especially favored. At Cordoba the school has its own building and an almost independent organization. A number of German professors, specialists in engineering science, have been in the faculty many years. At Buenos Aires the facilities have been constantly increased, and the Government now projects an entirely new plant in another part of the city, where greater space will be available. La Plata has the advantage of its new installation and reformed curriculum. The annual budget of the school of Buenos Aires is much greater than the combined budgets of the faculties of letters and law. At Cordoba, for instruction alone, it is more than $40,000. Chile has reserved the original university building in its entirety for the use of the engineering faculty and maintains a number of German professors to conduct the more technical branches of the work. In addition, the school of architecture has been detached and furnished with other quarters and special facilities. Almost one-third of the total budget of the university is devoted to this department. The Catholic University of Santiago also conducts a school of architecture and engineering. In Peru the school is independent of the university, has its own organization, separate building, large equipment, and valuable library. A new electrical laboratory was installed in 1911 at an expense of $30,000. The annual budget amounts to $50,000. Bolivia maintains no engineering school of university grade, but she expends $30,000 annually on her Practical School of Mines at Oruro, and employs at a large salary a foreign engineer of note as its president. In 1910 the University of Bogota provided its faculty of engineering with a new building. At Caracas the school has its own building of modern construction and, like the faculty of Cordoba, is, in organization, almost a separate institution. The smaller countries of Central America have found it impracticable to maintain engineering schools on account of the expense of laboratory equipment and the difficulty of securing competent instructors, and in its stead they send students abroad on scholarships. Mexico, during its four decades of industrial progress, gave much attention to industrial education, and besides the engineering school at the capital, with a budget of $57,000 in 1910–11, there were other schools in the provinces.

Organization.—In 1911 Brazil formulated a new organization for the Polytechnic School of Rio de Janeiro, which has already been adopted by the school of Sao Paulo and will doubtless be followed by all the other institutions in the Republic. It prescribes three courses of five years each—civil, industrial, and mechanical and electrical engineering. The studies of the first three years are identical—mathematics, physics, chemistry, mechanics, geology, mineralogy, and botany form the bases of the work. The purely technical studies are reserved for the two upper years. There are no linguistic or literary studies. The last statement is equally applicable to all Latin-American engineering courses.

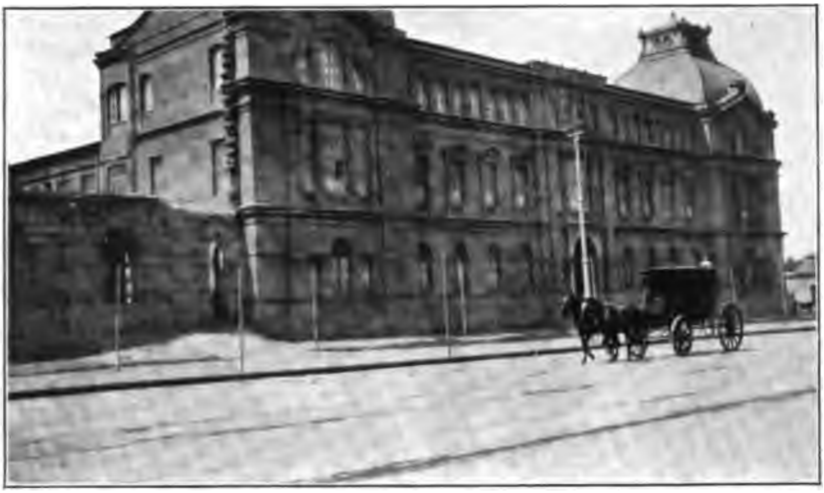
In all Spanish America, except Argentina, there is a marked uniformity in the organization of the engineering faculty and in the length, content, and arrangement of the various departments. The fact that in some instances the engineering school is an administrative unit within the faculty of exact sciences is of little import in understanding the work and is more form than reality. The engineering school directs the studies and confers the professional title of "engineer"; the faculty, composed of practically the same professors, confers the academic degrees in case the student aspires to these honors and passes the special examinations that entitle him to them. The engineering school comprises usually a department of surveying embracing three years, another of civil engineering embracing five years, and a third of mining engineering of equal length; in some, mining engineering is replaced by mechanical or industrial engineering. In the University of Buenos Aires, which offers civil and mechanical engineering, the time is extended to six years for the former. Some institutions have short practical courses of one, two, and three years in electricity, construction, etc. These sections must not be confounded with the industrial schools. They are of university rank, but do not lead to a degree or even to a professional title. Every school has also a section of architecture, which is one of its most important divisions and always has a large enrollment. The subject appeals strongly to the artistic genius of the race. So important is it that it practically forms a separate school, and in Chile has been given its own building and administration. The

A. POLYTECHNIC SCHOOL, RIO DE JANEIRO.

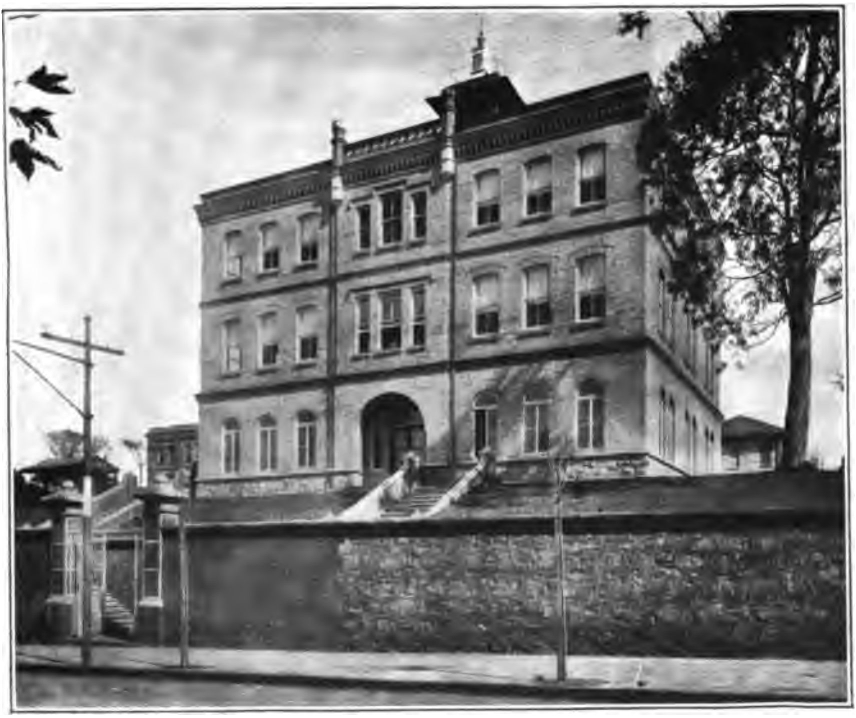
B. POLYTECHNIC SCHOOL, SAO PAULO, BRAZIL.

A. FAÇADE OF THE ENGINEERING SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF CARACAS, VENEZUELA.

B. OLD UNIVERSITY BUILDING, NOW USED FOR THE SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING, MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY.



A. PREPARATORY SCHOOL, CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF SANTIAGO, CHILE.



B. MACKENZIE COLLEGE, SAO PAULO, BRAZIL.

course of study usually comprises four years, but in some institutions it is extended to five; in others reduced to three. It differs from the North American course in containing less mathematics, physics, and engineering mechanics and in devoting more time to the artistic side of the profession. The increasing popularity of the department is fully justified by the rapid upbuilding of such countries as Argentina and Brazil, where the profession of the architect is highly profitable. In some other countries, where there is no remarkable immigration, wealth is increasing and there is a tendency to replace the old with the new, in material things as well as in modes of thought, and social organization.

Curricula.—The many different ramifications of engineering, each with its different course of study, preclude the reproduction in a work of this scope of representative curricula of all departments, but as indicative of the work there is given below the course in civil engineering in three widely separated schools.

THREE CIVIL ENGINEERING CURRICULA.

Rio de Janeiro.	*Cordoba.*	*Habana.*
FIRST YEAR.		
Analytical geometry Descriptive geometry Infinitesimal calculus Laboratory physics Drawing and graphics	Higher arithmetic and algebra Plane and solid geometry Trigonometry Physics (1st course) Inorganic chemistry Botany (Argentine flora) Drawing	Algebra Analytical geometry Trigonometry Mechanics Physics (1st course) Geometrical and free-hand drawing
SECOND YEAR.		
Theoretical mechanics Inorganic chemistry Elements of organic chemistry Botany Topography Surveying Topographical drawing	Algebra and analytical geometry Physics (2d course) Organic chemistry Topography Architecture Topographical drawing	Calculus Descriptive geometry Inorganic chemistry Physics (2d course) Mineralogy and petrography Geometrical and free-hand drawing
THIRD YEAR.		
Special trigonometry Astronomy Geodesy Applied mechanics and dynamics, kinematics Theory of resistance of materials Graphical statics Geology, mineralogy, paleontology and elements of metallurgy Projections and stereotomy	Infinitesimal calculus Architecture (2d course) Descriptive geometry (2d course) Industrial physics Structural designs Geology and mineralogy Qualitative analysis Ornamental drawing	Theoretical mechanics Geology Surveying Stereotomy, shadows, and perspective Materials of construction Drawing (topographical, structural, and architectural)
FOURTH YEAR.		
Materials of construction Resistance of materials Solidity of constructions Hydromechanics Roads, bridges, and viaducts Railway construction Machine drawing	Theoretical mechanics Engineering construction Industrial chemistry and metallurgy Hydromechanics Geodesy Engineering and surveying law Hygiene and sanitation Architectural drawing	Geodesy and topography Roads, streets, etc. Resistance of materials Graphical statics Machines Drawing (topographical, structural, and architectural)

FIFTH YEAR.

Architecture
Public sanitation
Machines
Rivers, canals, harbors, and lighthouses
Political economy
Administrative law
Statistics
Architectural drawing
Theory of machines
Agricultural engineering
Resistance of materials
Railway construction
Industrial electricity
Graphical statics
Projections and stereotomy
Railways
Bridges
Hydromechanics
Contracts, estimates, and engineering law
Astronomy

SIXTH YEAR.

Machines
Applied mechanics
Railway administration
Bridges and roads
Plans and estimates
Resistance of materials
Harbors and canals
Machine design

Class and laboratory.—The relative amount of theoretical and of practical instruction for two of the leading schools gives additional insight into the character of the training given the civil engineer. The figures represent hours per week, and by "practical work" is meant laboratory practice, drawing, designing, etc.

Hours of instruction per week.

Name of school.	Course.	Year.					
		1st.	2d.	3d.	4th.	5th.	6th.
Buenos Aires	Theoretical	12	15	15	18	14	15
	Practical	17	14	12	11	12	15
Santiago de Chile	Theoretical	17	17	16	15	18	------
	Practical	18	15	16	16	16	------

In the Chilean schedule the hours of class and laboratory are practically equal. A considerable disparity is shown in the first and fourth years of the Argentine program. In the school of mines of the Catholic University of Santiago the class and laboratory hours are exactly equal—18 for each year. It will be observed that the student's schedule is heavy, as measured by the North American standard, ranging from 19 to 24 "credit" hours per week and from 27 to 36 in total time of class and laboratory. In this respect the comparison should rather be with European practices, where more instruction is given in class and less individual preparation is required outside. It should be remembered also that what are indicated as class periods are usually lectures only.

One will look in vain for shops in a Latin-American engineering school. The institution is not unknown or unappreciated, but it is not for engineers. In the industrial schools of Argentina and Chile shopwork in wood and iron forms the essential feature of the curriculum, and the schools possess good facilities for the work. But shopwork in the engineering faculty is considered out of place.

Enrollment.—The distribution of students among the different lines of engineering is worthy of note as indicating both the inclination of the students and the demand for the different callings. Reference has already been made to the popularity of architecture. In the engineering school of Chile one student in five is enrolled in this department. At Buenos Aires the number is one in seven, but in the smaller schools the ratio will probably average as large, if not larger, than at Santiago. The distribution of all students in the faculty of exact sciences at Buenos Aires was, in 1911, as follows: Civil engineering (6 years), 599; mechanical engineering (5 years), 25; surveying (3 years), 39; architecture (5 years), 122; doctorate in chemistry (5 years), 45; in natural sciences (5 years), 6; in physico-mathematical sciences (5 years), 3. The last course has just been inaugurated, and the enrollment represents only two years. Students enrolled for the various doctorates are probably preparing to teach. The prospect of Government employment is a strong incentive for pursuing certain courses in preference to others. This explains in part the preeminence of civil engineering. For work on harbors, streets, sewers, waterworks, and irrigation projects the national, provincial, and local governments are now in great need of competent engineers. Active railroad building in Argentina, both by the Government and private companies, is another incentive. The matriculants of surveying all expect official appointment. Few students intend to enter the field of industry. This is explained in part by the fact that most large industries are in the hands of foreign corporations, who usually import their engineers as well as their managing personnel. In Chile, where all railroads are State-owned, the output of civil engineers is largely absorbed by the Government for railroad construction. The same has been true to less extent in Brazil. The fact that outside of Government enterprises the large industries are everywhere in the control of foreign corporations, using their fellow countrymen in engineering capacities, is a serious disadvantage to the native engineer. It dwarfs his initiative and forces him into a Government bureaucracy. This reacts ultimately upon the engineering school, making of it a governmental agency for the preparation of certain officials, instead of enlisting it actively for the industrial development of the nation.

CHAPTER IX.

NON-STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The principle of free public instruction is firmly intrenched in all Latin America, and the Government cheerfully supports all grades of schools from the kindergarten to the university. The State does not, however, monopolize instruction. Church and private institutions are tolerated and often encouraged, not only morally, but also financially. In primary education the State schools are the more numerous by far. Except in a very few countries, this grade of education is but little fostered by religious societies. In Brazil there are many private primary schools conducted by individuals. Secondary education, however, receives great attention from the Roman Catholic Church and the teaching orders. Long-established tradition had maintained that this grade of education could best be given in boarding schools, and the church was especially well organized to conduct this type of school. Protestant societies also have bent their energies principally to secondary education. Higher education has been left almost exclusively to the State. In all Latin America there are perhaps not more than three non-State institutions which maintain professional schools (other than ecclesiastical) or a college of liberal arts in the sense that the word college is used in the United States. The reasons for the abstention of the Roman Catholic Church from this grade of instruction are two: First, the rise of the secular faculties of civil law, medicine, and, later, engineering, which became governmental administrative corporations as well as teaching bodies; second, the decadence of the faculty of letters and philosophy and the substitution for it of the enlarged curriculum of the liceo. Excluded from the secular faculties and the State universities, the church directed its energies to the new form of high school and to the episcopal seminaries that rose in the place of the old faculty of theology.

The three non-State institutions are worthy of special notice not only because they form a class apart, but because each has a peculiar history and differs radically from the other two.

Colegio de Nuestra Señora del Rosario.—This institution, founded at Bogota in 1664, has preserved, at least in its outward forms, the marks of the era of its foundation, and corresponds more closely to the colonial university than any other institution in Latin America. It was never a university in name, but had the power of conferring degrees in civil and canon law, medicine, theology, and philosophy and letters. At present it retains only the faculty of philosophy and letters, but to this extent it is of university rank, and is so recognized by the State. The University of Bogota possesses faculties of medicine, law, and engineering, but in letters and philosophy the Colegio del Rosario has no rival. Theology has been transferred to the archbishop's seminary. The Colegio maintains two courses, the lower affording preparation for entrance to the professional faculties, the higher leading to the degree of doctor of letters and philosophy. It is an institution that corresponds in the form of its organization to the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge. It has its fellows, scholars, and commoners, all of whom live in the college. There are also day scholars.

The college is autonomous, chooses its own officers, faculty, and fellows, and regulates its budget, requirements, and curriculum in accordance with its original constitution and by-laws. The latter were revised in 1893, but more in form than in substance. The only check on the autonomy of the institution is the veto power held by the President of the Republic on the choice of rector. The faculty is selected by the ancient method of *oposición*, and always from alumni of the college, if possible. At the time of its foundation the Colegio del Rosario was handsomely endowed, and during the colonial period it was far-famed for both the excellence of its instruction and its distinguished alumni. Later came dark days. The charter was violated, the endowment dissipated. Finally, the Government recognized its responsibility in the material disaster that had overtaken the institution through civil strife, and restored in part the revenue by the issue of treasury certificates on which it pays to the college a fixed interest.

The Catholic University of Chile.—If the Colegio del Rosario is a religious college of the olden type of organization, the Catholic University of Chile is a church school of a distinctly modern pattern. It has no history connecting it with colonial times. Founded as late as 1888, in one of the most progressive commonwealths of Spanish America, organized after the same model as the State university, and preparing its graduates for secular vocations, it is the one example in South America of modern and local non-State initiative in higher and professional education. The government of the institution is vested directly in the church, which names the rector and confirms the appointment of professors, deans, and other officers. The financial administration also is directed by the ecclesiastical authorities. The institution therefore enjoys little autonomy, but its financial prosperity is assured, since the church is pledged irrevocably to its support. It has received also considerable endowment. A splendid building, situated in the principal avenue of Santiago, is in process of erection. In the wing already completed is located the preparatory school. The work of the university proper is still carried on in a building situated in the heart of the city.

Four departments are in operation—law, engineering, architecture, and agriculture. The last-named faculty is in reality two distinct schools, the theoretical and the practical. The theoretical studies cover three years and are followed by a year of practical application, which is done on a farm near the city. The engineering school offers two causes—one in civil, the other in industrial and mining engineering. The first is five years in length, the latter four years, and both correspond very closely to the corresponding courses in the State university. The course in architecture also covers four years.

The Catholic University of Santiago is thoroughly modern in its equipment and general methods. Its material resources have steadily increased, and the new buildings will give it unrivaled facilities. While from a material point of view it is a disadvantage to duplicate the work of the State university, from the point of view of efficiency the presence of two rival institutions in the same city is a decided stimulus to both.

Mackenzie College.—The third non-State institution of higher education is located at Sao Paulo. In its origin and organization it is exotic, and yet through a generation of usefulness it has become a part and parcel of the new Brazil. For more than 40 years there has existed in Sao Paulo a group of primary and secondary schools founded and administered by North Americans. In 1886 an advanced course of collegiate rank was formed, and four years later it was incorporated with the University of the State of New York. The purpose of the founders was to maintain an institution of higher learning patterned after the North American model for the benefit of Brazilians preparing to do postgraduate study abroad or engaging in industrial and commercial pursuits at home. The faculty is composed largely of Americans, Canadians, and Englishmen. Besides the preparatory course, with its parallel divisions of classical, scientific, and commercial studies, there is the college of liberal arts containing also three sections—classics, general sciences, and civil engineering. A section of agriculture is to be organized next year. There are both day students and boarders. The dormitory privileges are reserved for students whose parents do not live in the city. Women are admitted to the college, but as day scholars only.

The history of the college has been one of continuous expansion and of adaptation to the growing needs of the country. It possesses a large campus in one of the best parts of the city, several good buildings, and a farm in the suburbs, which is to be the seat of the new department of agriculture. The primary schools, which were the starting point of the college, are located in other parts of the city. They are not a part of the college, but are feeders to the preparatory department. To Mackenzie College is due in no small measure the general interest manifested by the State of Sao Paulo in public education and her preeminence in this particular among the States of the Brazilian federation.

PART II. SPECIAL EDUCATION.

CHAPTER X.

NORMAL EDUCATION.

A normal school in Latin America is an institution of secondary-school rank. The entrance requirements are never more and very frequently less than those of the regular high school (liceo). In length of term it corresponds also very closely to the secondary school, and it will be observed from the sample curricula given later that the studies, except the strictly professional subjects, are much the same as those of the high school. The institution is in fact merely a normal high school, repeating the academic subjects of the secondary school, with the addition of courses in methodology and of opportunities for practice teaching in the annexed model school. The purpose of the normal school is, therefore, to train teachers for the primary school only. Some graduates secure posts in the lower grades of commercial and secondary schools and through energy and persistence rise to higher positions in the educational system, but, generally speaking, a normal graduate, whether boy or girl, is limited to the common schools. This fact binds the normal school to elementary education and puts a broad chasm between it and regular secondary education and the university.

Admission.—Although the requirements for admission to the normal school are never more than the completion of the State elementary school, or an equivalent examination, the age of the pupils is 14 and upward. Many schools, especially the boarding schools, prescribe a minimum age of 14. The course of study begins very frequently with a "preparatory year," during which period few new studies are introduced; the pupil reviews all the important branches of the elementary school, and is tried out, as it were. If the outcome is not satisfactory to the administration, if the pupil does not show sufficient aptitude for the more advanced instruction, he is dissuaded from proceeding. The preparatory year is justified on the ground that instruction in the lower schools is necessarily very unequal, since some schools are located in towns of considerable importance and others in remote villages. The environment of the children, therefore, differs widely both in home and in school, and it is but natural that the educational product should show corresponding inequalities and variations. The first year is expected to mold the newcomers into a responsive and harmonious class. There is, however, another explanation of the *año preparatorio.* It is not only in the United States that teachers in higher schools have a certain disdain, conscious or unconscious, for work done below their own grade. High-school teachers criticize the teaching in the grades, and college faculties will rarely admit that students come to them well prepared. This same educational distrust is prevalent in Spanish America, and not only normal schools but many other special schools begin with a preparatory course.

Course of study.—The curriculum covers a period of years that varies considerably in different countries. The extremes are three and seven years. The usual length of time is four and five years. In Argentina it is four years; in Chile, five; in Brazil, three and four; in Salvador, three; in Uruguay, four; in Costa Rica, seven. As the primary normal is but a specialization of secondary education the length of the course does not depend so much on the amount of professional training as upon the amount of academic instruction that is included in the curriculum.

It is often difficult to estimate the normal course by years. In some schools the professional studies are introduced in the very first year; in others two or three years are occupied with purely secondary studies, and the specific normal subjects and practice teaching are confined to the last year. Especially may this be so in countries where the normal school is a section of the regular secondary school. In Costa Rica, for example, the course is uniform in the Girls' High School (Colegio de Señoritas) during the first four years; then follows the distinctive normal course of three years, and yet the entire period of seven years is commonly known as the normal school. In passing, it may be stated that the combination of normal and high school in a single organization is exceptional, although it might be found highly advantageous in view of the fact that in both the grade of study and age of the pupils are the same. Only the smaller States, for reasons of economy, have adopted this form of organization. The tendency is rather to multiply institutions and confine each to one single line of preparation.

Another reason for variation in the length of the normal course is the amount of schooling the pupil has had before entering. In the majority of States the elementary school embraces six years, and this is the basis of admission to the normal school. But in some the American practice obtains of lengthening the period of elementary education and shortening proportionately the high-school course. In Brazil the full elementary course embraces eight years; in Uruguay, seven. In such countries it is therefore quite natural that normal education should be shorter than where the preliminary education is limited to six years.

Within each country the normal schools are practically uniform as far as the length and subject matter of the course is concerned. Even in a federal republic, as Argentina, the central Government maintains schools in the provinces, and although there are also State normal schools it is the national system that sets the standard. The curricula given below of the national normal schools of Argentina, Chile, and Colombia represent well the four and five year types. Only a very few countries have three-year schools.

National normal schools of Chile.

Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.				
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.
Pedagogy (theoretical and practical)			3	5	12
Religious and moral instruction	2	2	2	1	1
Spanish	5	5	5	5	5
Foreign language (generally French)	2	2	2	2	1
Arithmetic and algebra	3	3	2	2	1
Bookkeeping			1	1	
Geometry and elementary trigonometry	2	2	2	2	1
Natural history and hygiene	3	3	2	2	2
Elementary agriculture	1	1	1	1	1
Physics and chemistry	2	2	2	2	1
History (general, American, and Chilean)	3	3	3	2	2
Civics (and for girls, domestic economy)	1	1	1	1	1
Geography and cosmography	2	2	2	1	1
Penmanship	2	2	1	1	
Drawing	2	2	2	2	2
Music (singing, violin, and harmony)	4	4	4	4	4
Physical culture	2	2	2	2	2
Manual training or household arts	2	2	2	2	2
Total	38	38	38	38	39

National normal schools of Argentina.

Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.			
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.
Pedagogy and psychology	2	2	2	4
Pedagogy (practice teaching)	3	4	6	9
Pepagogy (critical conferences)			2	2
Arithmetic, algebra, and geometry	3	3	3	
History (general, American, and Argentine)	3	2	2	2
Geography and cosmography	2	2	2	2
Spanish and literature	4	3	3	2
French	3	3	3	
Natural history, physiology, and hygiene	3	2	2	2
Physics and chemistry		5		
Moral and civic instruction				3
Drawing, music, elementary agriculture, physical culture, manual training, household arts	10	10	6	4
Total	33	36	31	30

National normal schools of Colombia.

Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.				
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.
Pedagogy (theoretical)	3	3	3	3	3
Pedagogy (practical)	3	3	3	3	3
Religion	3	3	3	....	....
History (sacred and ecclesiastical)	3	3	3	....	....
History (Colombian and general)	....	....	6	....	6
Spanish (grammar, rhetoric, and literature)	6	6	6	....	....
Arithmetic, algebra, and geometry	6	6	6	3	....
Geography and cosmography	3	6	....	....	....
Physical geography	3	....	....	....	....
Bookkeeping	....	....	....	6	....
French	....	....	....	3	3
Physiology and hygiene	....	....	....	3	3
Physics	....	....	....	3	3
Chemistry	....	....	....	3	3
Natural history	....	....	....	3	6
Music, drawing, penmanship, and calisthenics	15	15	15	15	15
Total	45	45	45	45	45

Observations on curricula.—The great number of hours of class work, especially in the Colombian and Chilean systems, indicates that little preparation is expected for the lessons, and that the recitation period is practically all the time given to the subject. This is more in accordance with European methods in secondary instruction than North American practices. The large number of subjects carried simultaneously by the student is another European characteristic of the Chilean schedule, in which there are no less than 16 or 18 different studies per week. A similar system obtains in the high schools of many countries. The effect, according to the North American view, is to dissipate the pupil's energies, to deprive him of the power, or inclination, to think deeply into any subject, and to make him content with absorbing knowledge in the classroom instead of encouraging original thinking.

In the curriculum of all the best normal schools, a distinct place is now assigned to handwork—manual training for the boys and household arts for the girls. These subjects are carried down into the primary schools, and their presence in elementary instruction in almost every country is one of the most hopeful signs in Latin America. It will be observed that in two of the curricula presented elementary agriculture is also included. This subject is also found very generally in the Latin-American normal school, and is another indication of the modern spirit. A study which at first glance seems to have no utilitarian value for the normal student, since he is preparing specifically for teaching in the primary schools, is that of a foreign language. But it is contended that Spanish is relatively poor in pedagogical literature and that the student should be given the power to read methodology in at least one other tongue. The contention is perhaps more valid for Portuguese than for Spanish, but even here its strength is weakened by the fact that a Brazilian can read Spanish understandingly without study, so great is the similarity between the two languages. The study of modern foreign language in the primary normal school can scarcely be justified on the ground of utility. It, of course, has its cultural and linguistic value, and this is greater in Spanish America since neither normal nor secondary schools include Latin in their curricula.

It will be observed that elementary instruction is given in all the common sciences. Botany, zoology, etc., are grouped in one course, and physics and chemistry joined in another. Methods of instruction are much the same in both. Except in Argentina, individual laboratory exercises are little used. The teacher develops the subject with or without the aid of a text, and in the biological sciences uses for illustration pictorial charts and objects from the school museum. In physics and chemistry, the instructor performs experiments at the desk in the presence of the class, and the following day requires that they be described by a pupil or reproduced. A pupil, therefore, has little opportunity to handle apparatus and materials. He is expected merely to reproduce. No new experiment is given him to perform by the combination of others previously learned. In failing to provide individual and quasi-original laboratory exercises, the school misses a fine opportunity to develop the expression of spontaneity and initiative, while the reproductive form of experiment tends to develop the memory habit of recitation.

Method and examinations.—In many normal schools few or no textbooks are used. The teacher develops or dictates the lesson, and the pupils take notes or copy the dictation. This method is especially common in Chile and in countries that have received their organization directly or indirectly from Chile. In Argentina and other countries where North Americans were called to organize the first normal schools, textbooks are regularly employed, and in addition much use is made of the reference library. The two methods can be traced pretty accurately by the greater or less number of class hours per week. The textbook presupposes more individual preparation, and the class hour becomes more of a recitation and less of an exposition. The virtual abolition of regular class texts came about in some countries through a laudable desire to overcome the mnemonic habit that marked the old schools. But the root of that evil was not in the text, but in the method of the teacher, and the substitution of notes for text was only a palliative and not a cure. The evil still exists in many schools and is fostered by the importance placed upon the final year-end oral examinations common to all forms of education in Latin America. In this matter the normal schools are, as a rule, far in advance of others since they have partial tests, oral and written, at intervals throughout the year, and the final examination is often both oral and written. The latter, which admits of more specific questions and in which time can be allowed for resolving problems and deducing original conclusions, takes the burden of the examination off the memory and throws it upon the reasoning powers, where it properly belongs. Notwithstanding these reforms the year-end oral examination is an overshadowing feature in Latin-American education. The student is accustomed to it even in the grades, and even when modified as it usually is in the normal school it is still all-important in the eyes of both teachers and pupils. In oral examinations the examiners do not ask specific questions, but permit the student to talk on one or more topics selected at random from the year's study on the subject.

Organization and scholarships.—As concerns their internal organization, the primary normal schools of Latin America are of two classes, the day school and the boarding school. There are also a few examples of a third type, where the pupils live outside, but have the midday meal in the school (semi-internado). This type is to be found only in large cities. Some countries, as Chile and Peru, adhere very closely to the boarding school, whether for boys or girls. Others, as Argentina and Uruguay, have only day schools, where pupils not living at home lodge and board in houses approved by the school authorities. The problem of extramural control of pupils in such schools is lessened by a custom followed in all countries, which requires a pupil not living at home to have in the town where he attends school a temporary guardian (apoderado), who stands in loco parentis and to whom the school looks to guarantee the proper conduct of the pupil outside the classroom.

Formerly the boarding-school type of normal school was more universal than at the present day, and the system developed naturally from the manner in which the schools were supplied with pupils. There are few private normal schools in Spanish America to-day, and when this type of education was introduced there were none. The first schools were founded by the State and were considered in much the same light as a military academy. In the latter the boy is educated, clothed, fed, and trained at State expense for a specific public service. In return he agrees to serve the State for a fixed period of years. In the normal school the boy receives a different education and training, but it is none the less for State service. Consquently it seemed only just that the Government should support him during these years of preparation. In the United States such a system obtains in the national military and naval academies, but has never found a place in normal or other schools. The difference in practice is partly explained by the fact that normal education in the United States came gradually in the natural development of general education, while in Spanish America it was introduced and fostered by the Government. It was a distinct, conscious agency employed by advanced and patriotic statesmen to foster the cause of primary education. Under such conditions, it seemed most natural to prepare the teacher in the same way as the State prepared the soldier.

Once established the system of State scholarships in normal schools has continued unquestioned to the present day. If it is a boarding school, the pupil receives in the school itself lodging and food in addition to free instruction and school supplies. In day schools the State scholars are granted a small monthly pension—just sufficient to meet necessary expenses. In return for this scholarship, the pupil, whether boy or girl, contracts with the Government, with the consent of parent or guardian, and furnishes bond that he will serve the State as a primary teacher during a fixed number of years (varying from four to six) in whatever school he may be assigned or reimburse the State for the expense incurred. Such a contract is possible in countries which are administrative units, as are all in Latin America, except Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, and Venezuela, and even in these countries there is a tendency to centralize the administration of primary education. In other countries the same central authority that establishes and maintains the normal schools supports the elementary schools and appoints the teachers.

It is reported that the contracts to serve as teachers are not always fulfilled, and this is doubtless true in some countries. The graduate may develop an inclination to follow another vocation, or none at all. In recent years commercial positions have become much more attractive from the point of view of the remuneration offered than the profession of primary teacher. Some normal graduates have been tempted to desert their calling and to break faith with the Government. In certain localities this breach of contract has been winked at by the authorities.

Another instance of irregularity sometimes occurs in the process of admission to the schools. The scholarships are distributed among the administrative units of the district where the normal school is located and are awarded on competitive examination. In some countries political officers have a preponderating influence on the awarding board, and sometimes the award is made on other grounds than those of merit. These are evils incident to the system, but in the progressive countries such irregularities are rare.

In the early days of the normal school practically all pupils were State scholars, but that is no longer the case. Pupils do not often come from a distance unless they win a scholarship, but young men or women who live in the locality in which the school is located take advantage of the opportunities it presents to prepare themselves for the profession of teaching. Instruction is either entirely free or the fees are merely nominal. It may almost be said that the normal school is the people's high school, since the regular secondary school is organized specially to afford preparation for the university.

Salaries.—The system of free State education, including State scholarships in the normal schools, tends to make the teacher's salary small. With a corps of educational soldiers, so to speak, at its command, the State can set a wage that is less than what the young man or woman would command in other pursuits. Especially is this true in countries that have experienced a rapid commercial and industrial development. The bald statement of the teacher's stipend conveys but a faint idea of his economic position, and this is especially true in Latin-America where the cost of living varies greatly, not only as between countries but also as between localities in the same country. In Buenos Aires the normal graduate just entering the profession receives $768 per annum; in Rio de Janeiro, $600; in Chile, $300 and lodging (not including board). Lodging is of course a variable item, and when commuted in money serves somewhat to equalize the variations in cost of living in different localities.

So marked is the discrepancy between remuneration in commercial and industrial pursuits on the one hand and teaching on the other that everywhere men are disappearing from the profession of primary teaching. Where formerly there was a plethora of candidates for every vacant scholarship, there are now in some regions no candidates at all. A distinguished educator in Chile has said: "The State begins at the wrong end; it pays its pupils, but does not remunerate properly its teachers." The system has doubtless much to do with the present low salaries, but the same condition exists in a degree in other continents and can be ascribed in large part to the unprecedented industrial advance of the age.

Social position.—The social status of normal-school pupils and of primary teachers in general is an interesting study in Latin America. It is difficult to give a just appreciation of the situation, as it depends not only on general social conditions but on the difference in school systems. Latin-American society, while in many ways most democratic, still contains much of the medieval caste spirit. Especially is this true of countries and regions that have not felt the full tide of modern industrialism. In these places wealth is almost wholly in land, and it is a well-known fact that a landed aristocracy is the most persistent and the most exclusive. The distinction therefore between rich and poor, landlord and peon, is very marked. The advance of industrialism is breaking down class lines in some States, and particularly in the great centers, but in many regions they are still strong. This tends to confine a large percentage of the enrollment in many normal schools to the humbler classes. Such young people come from homes in which there is little culture or refinement. The stock of culture that they will take with them into their profession must, therefore, be acquired almost wholly in the school. No matter how excellent the institution, it will be admitted by all that it has a difficult task to perform and that, while the young teacher may go out to his work scholastically competent, he must necessarily lack other qualities which are in the art of teaching scarcely less important than knowledge. This is all the more unfortunate since these teachers go forth to preside over children who in their turn come from the humblest homes, and who must get in the school itself almost all the notions of culture and refinement that they will ever get.

Primary school and liceo.—In the United States the free public school is essentially a democratic institution. It is patronized very generally by all classes of society. Its only rival is the expensive private school. In some countries of Spanish America, in addition to private and church schools, there exist two classes of free public schools, the elementary school for the people and the liceo with an adjunct primary school for the upper classes. One result is to put the teacher of the people's school in a distinctly lower class, and as the graduate of the normal school has this future to face, its clientele is drawn naturally from the less cultured ranks of society. If there were many graduations in society the effect would not be so marked, but as stated above there are in reality but two, the high and the low.

A restriction.—Another factor which operates against the social status of the primary teacher, and consequently determines more or less the clientele of the normal school, is the fact that the primary teacher, whether man or woman, is practically bound for all time to that one grade of teaching. Since his scholastic training is merely a modification of secondary education, he has little opportunity for rising through successful experience to higher ranks in his profession. In all countries the normal school is jointed in administration with the elementary school, while the secondary school is linked with the professional schools of law, medicine, etc.

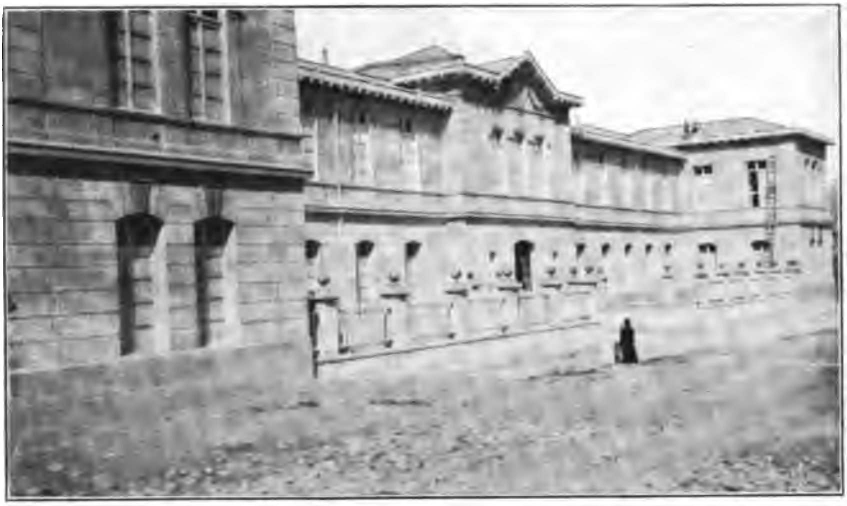
Personnel.—The faculty of a normal school consists of a director, subdirector, secretary, and professors. The director is frequently a foreigner. Since the normal school was a direct and ready-made importation, it was absolutely necessary at first to import the directing personnel as well if the institution was to be a success. The first normals of Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil were presided over by men and women from the United States; Chile called Germans to this work; Peru, Bolivia, Salvador, and others brought in Frenchmen and Belgians. In those countries which were the pioneers in normal education the foreigner has almost disappeared, since there

A. NORMAL SCHOOL NO. 1 FOR WOMEN, BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA.

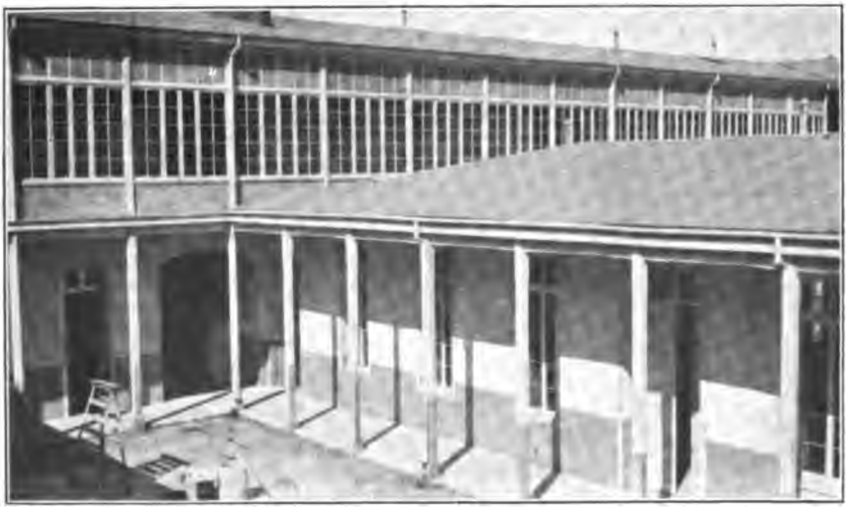
B. FÊTE IN THE MODERN LANGUAGE NORMAL SCHOOL, BUENOS AIRES.

A. FAÇADE OF NORMAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, NO. 3, SANTIAGO, CHILE.

B. GROUP OF STUDENTS OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, NO. 1, SANTIAGO, CHILE.



A. FAÇADE OF NEW NORMAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, LA SARENA, CHILE.



B. A PATIO IN THE SAME SCHOOL.

A. FRONT VIEW OF THE NEW NATIONAL NORMAL SCHOOL, CORDOBA, ARGENTINA.

B. REAR VIEW OF THE SAME BUILDING.

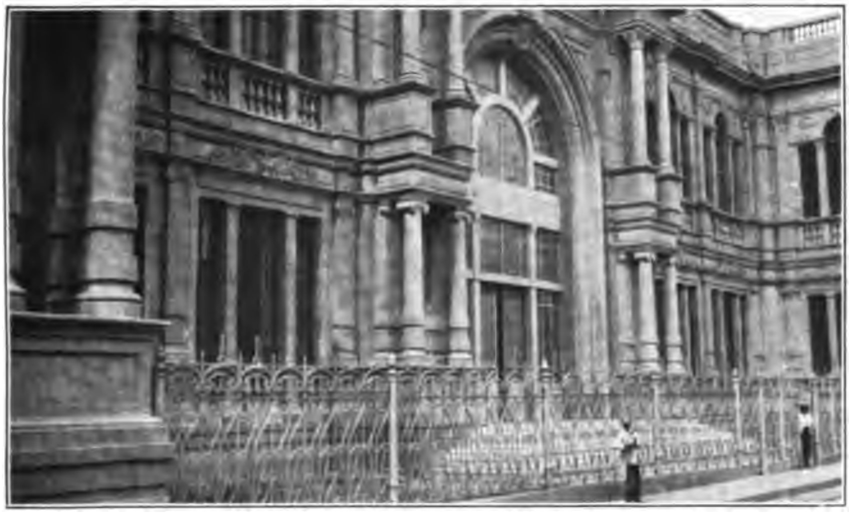
A. NORMAL SCHOOL, RIO DE JANEIRO

B. NORMAL SCHOOL, SAO PAULO, BRAZIL.

A. FAÇADE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL, AREQUIPA, PERU.

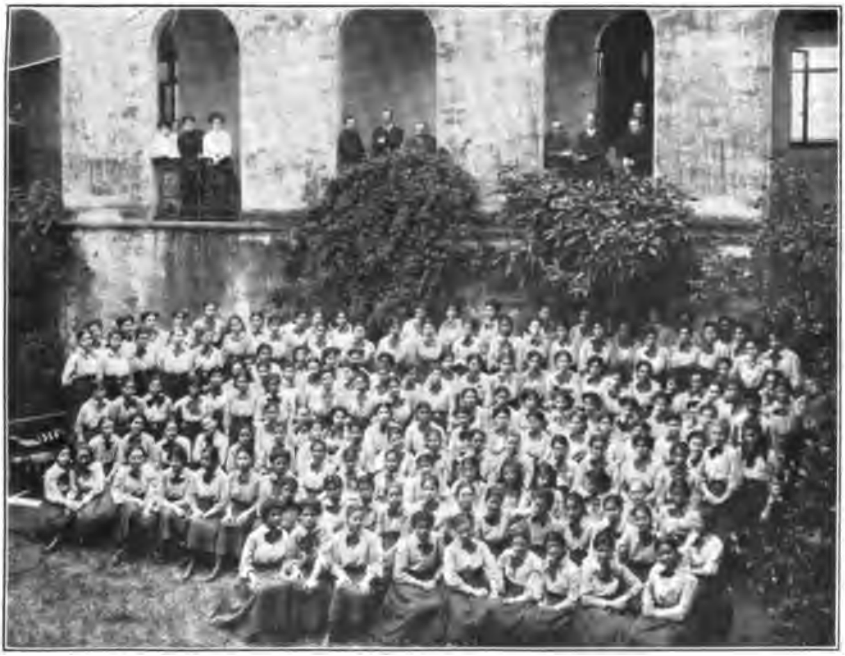
B. PATIO OF THE SAME SCHOOL.

A. HIGH AND NORMAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, GUATEMALA CITY.



B. MAIN ENTRANCE OF THE PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, CORDOBA. ARGENTINA.

A. A COVERED PATIO IN THE MEN'S NORMAL SCHOOL, CHILLAN, CHILE.



B. A GROUP OF STUDENTS, SUPERIOR COLLEGE FOR YOUNG LADIES, SAN JOSE, COSTA RICA.

have grown up generations of native-born teachers, trained in the same methods and familiar with the best ideals in educational science. The change from foreign to native directors has come gradually, and in most cases without friction or professional rivalries. Many of these first directors are still kindly remembered and honored. One can not visit the famous normal school of Parana without hearing the name of George A. Stearns, its enthusiastic founder. In the vestibule of the school of La Plata stands the bust of Mary O'Graham, for long years its principal, while another American woman long in the service of Argentine schools is spending in her adopted land the declining years of a most useful life, a pensioner of the Argentine Government.

Secretary and professors.—The secretary of the faculty or, rather, of the school, tabulates and preserves the attendance record and the monthly or quarterly classification of students as reported by the professors, and also the results of the formal oral examinations at the end of the year. Another duty is to keep a record of the attendance of the professors themselves at classes. Each subject has its professor, if indeed it does not have two or more. This practice, common in Latin America not only to normal, but to all schools above the elementary, necessitates many teachers, even for a small school. The disadvantages of this system have already been portrayed in the chapter on university organization. Normal schools suffer less from the practice than some other types of education, because of the relative homogeneity and compactness of the curriculum. The basic subjects of psychology and pedagogy, together with the practice of teaching, are taught by the director, subdirector, and principal of the practice school, who give all their time to the school. Certain other subjects, such as mathematics and the mother tongue, are continued through several years and thus afford sufficient work to require all the time of a teacher. This furnishes a group of teachers who form the real faculty of the school and mold its spirit. Certain other subjects must be assigned to teachers from the outside, who divide their time between various schools in the same town or are engaged in the practice of a profession, law, medicine, pharmacy, etc. The sciences, foreign languages, history, and civics are usually provided for in this way, and not infrequently mathematics is subdivided, one professor teaching only arithmetic, another algebra, etc.

The itinerant professor, whether a teacher by profession, or lawyer, physician, or follower of some other profession, who teaches as a side issue, comes therefore to the normal school for only one or two lessons a day, and the problem of his attendance and punctuality is often more perplexing than that of the pupils. In the secretary's office is a register which each teacher signs daily before beginning or after finishing his class. He also indicates in a parallel column the topics of the day's lesson, not only in order to furnish a record of the progress of the class, but also for the benefit of the director, in case a substitute teacher must be provided. For, as might be expected, a professor who divides his time between various institutions, or a man engaged in another profession, frequently finds it necessary or convenient to absent himself from a lesson.

Practice teaching.—The practice school is organized as a regular primary school with a teacher in charge of each grade, who does all the teaching of the grade except such subjects as music, physical culture, etc. These are commonly taught by the teachers who do the corresponding work in the normal school itself. The two schools are almost invariably to be found in the same building. The director is the administrative head of both and is aided in the lower school by a director of practice teaching. So close and organic is the union of the two departments that the entire institution, the *escuela normal* and the *escuela de aplicacion*, or *escuela anexa*, is known as the normal school. The fact that both are State institutions, depending directly upon the minister of public instruction, prevents the development of any discordant relations. Everywhere the *escuela de aplicacion* is considered the best of the primary schools, and parents are eager to have their children admitted. Besides, where there is competition for entrance to the normal classes, the child who comes up through the practice school has a better chance for admission, and, on the other hand, the fact that the future clientele of the normal classes is to be formed in the *escuela anexa* makes the direction of the school more interesting and more important to the institution as a whole.

The amount of actual practice teaching done by students varies widely, and, indeed, it is difficult to gather accurate data on the subject. Observation in the classroom and actual practice are grouped together in answer to inquiry and on class schedules. In general, it may be said that observation and practice are considered of almost equal importance. The longer course of the normal school, in comparison with normal schools in the United States, makes it possible, even convenient, that much more time be allotted to observation. A very common practice is for the whole class in the upper years to be present one hour each day in the *escuela de aplicacion* while one of their number gives a lesson. By this method all observe an hour daily, but each student does not actually teach more than an hour in two or three weeks, the frequency depending on the size of the normal class. Still, in the curriculum and class schedule this will be called daily exercise in practice teaching.

Rented buildings.—In considering the school buildings a sharp distinction must be made between those that are State owned and those merely rented and remodeled, more or less thoroughly, to adapt them to school purposes. The North American who studies Latin-American education is surprised by the large number of rented buildings used for primary and secondary as well as for normal schools. In the United States a building constructed for the purpose almost invariably precedes the school, if it is a State institution. If ready funds are not available, the State or community bonds itself for the necessary amount. This practice is not usual in Latin America. If the necessary money is not on hand, the authorities lease temporary quarters. Even in the countries most advanced in the matter of education the number of buildings rented for school purposes is very large, perhaps even larger in the more enterprising States than in the others, for the very reason that greater interest is taken in public instruction, and it is urged that the school must begin even if the building is lacking. The custom is not as incongruous as it would appear in the United States, on account of the difference in architectural types. It is not a business building that is rented for the school, but a residence. A Spanish-American house is invariably built about a patio around which runs a gallery and on which all rooms open. If the house is two stories the gallery is also, and the stairway is not in the house, but connects the galleries. Public buildings are constructed on the same model, so that in general a residence differs little in architectural arrangement from a schoolhouse built expressly for the purpose. Good residences are large, the rooms spacious, and ceilings high; consequently, in many respects they are not unsuited to school uses, and the milder climate permits the opening of all doors and windows. Their chief disadvantages consist in the fact that there are openings on one side only and these under a roofed veranda, so that even with doors and windows open ventilation and light are often insufficient.

Financial disadvantages.—The policy of leasing school property instead of building may well be questioned from various standpoints. Financially, it is a serious drain on the treasury, for the rent is necessarily high and repairs and alterations are always required to adopt the house to its new use. If the lease does not run a long time, it becomes necessary to remove the school to a new location and repeat the process of installation. The expenditures of a few years in rent, removals, and alterations would suffice to construct a good building. Aside from the question of providing better hygienic conditions, a school building owned by the State confers on the institution a dignity that is all important in countries battling to extend the advantages of education among a population which is sometimes indifferent or even hostile to the movement.

State-owned buildings.—The State-owned normal buildings are, as a rule, excellent. This class of schools has been especially favored by the Government, in the belief that good normal training is the basis of progress in public education. Latin America has profound respect for things modern and for things imported. The normal school was in both categories, and to it the nations, in their earnest desire to educate the masses, pinned their faith. No matter what was its grade of efficiency, the normal school was a term to conjure by.

As a result of this devotion the buildings that were erected were worthy of the purpose for which they were designed. For day schools the plan is simple. If the building has two stories, the normal classes use the upper story and the practice school the lower, and unless the school is large the one patio sufficies. In countries where the boarding normal school is the custom the building is necessarily much larger, more complicated, and the outlay on the part of the State far greater. The usual plan is a two-story structure surrounding two patios. Between and separating the patios is the assembly hall, which faces the main entrance. Around one patio are the normal classrooms and around the other the practice schoolrooms. Each school has thus its own patio for light and recreation, and as they are not uncommonly roofed with glass they are available in all weather. The second story is devoted entirely to lodgings. The refectory and kitchens are in the rear and adjoining are the servants' quarters. The European type of dormitory is everywhere in vogue, i. e., a large hall containing many beds. Each dormitory is presided over by an inspector, who has a cubicle at one end of the hall. The dormitory is, therefore, sleeping quarters and nothing more. Pupils study in the evening as well as during the day in their respective classrooms. The hygienic conditions are good, shower baths are provided, and although the building is constructed on the patio plan, unlike the private residence in a city block the rooms receive light and air from two sides, since the edifice stands apart.

Equipment.—In the matter of equipment there is a wide disparity, not only between schools but also between different features in the same institution. The administrative offices are always well furnished, often even handsomely. In the schoolrooms not much effort is made to beautify the surroundings. The furniture is, for the most part, imported and consists of desks of the pattern used in elementary schools in the United States. Double desks are rapidly giving way to single ones. Blackboard space is usually far too limited, if judged by North American standards. This arises from the prevailing method of teaching, which directs the teacher's entire attention to one pupil at a time and leaves the rest of the class to listen only.

The library is perhaps the weakest feature of the normal school of to-day. Often there is no room set apart for books and for general reading. A few works of reference and a scant collection of pedagogical treatises in the director's office comprise the library of many schools. Where there is a regular library room the books are not, as a rule, easily accessible to the student. The library in such cases is almost useless and fails to give to the young the desire for good and useful reading. A prominent Chilean educator has said: "We teach the children how to read, but do not teach them to want to read." This statement does not apply with equal force to all countries. Argentina, among others, is striving to accustom the pupil in the elementary grades, as well as in the normal, to regular and efficient work in the library.

Laboratories.—Considering the method by which the experimental sciences are usually taught, the laboratory equipment is sufficient. Indeed, in many cases, it is abundant. As already noticed in the paragraphs treating of curriculum, the method, except in Argentina and one or two other countries, excludes individual laboratory exercises. As all the experimentation is done by the teacher at the desk, a single set of apparatus is all that is needed. Nearly all normal schools are so provided, and many possess apparatus of a delicacy and complexity far exceeding the needs of a primary normal school curriculum in these branches.

School museums.—Latin-American normal schools, as well as schools of all grades, make much of their museum of natural history. No matter how humble the school, it has the beginnings at least of a collection. Teachers, pupils, and local scientists make donations, and the older institutions often have collections of great value and utility. A room is always set apart for the museum, and much use is made of the collections in teaching zoology, botany, etc. There are also good collections of charts for instruction in physiology, history, and geography. The Latin-American teacher has great respect for all these teaching aids, and the more expensive or complicated the apparatus the greater is his confidence in its efficiency. Graphical representations are much used in teaching the facts of history, geography, and science. This objective method of presentation harmonizes well with the expository method of instruction so generally employed, but on the other hand an objective study of scientific processes which is secured by individual laboratory exercises is practiced in the normal schools of very few countries.

HIGHER AND SPECIAL NORMAL EDUCATION.

Primary normal schools organized and supported by the State are to be found in every country of Latin America. Even the smallest nations maintain at least one, and in the larger and populous countries they are numerous. Primary education has profited enormously from them, and the progress of the elementary schools can be gauged very fairly by the proportion of normal schools to the total population. Not all primary teachers are normal graduates, but the latter are numerous enough in the most progressive countries to form a large element of the teaching corps, and they have established the distinct profession of primary teacher. Men and women untrained in the normal school are put in charge of schools, especially in the rural districts, but the *normalistas* are regarded as the only real primary teachers. They are the regulars; the others are militiamen.

Teachers in secondary schools.—It is only in primary schools, however, that there exists a real teaching profession. In Chile considerable progress has been made toward preparing teachers for secondary education, but in all other countries there are few professional teachers in the higher schools. The cause and effect of this situation have already been analyzed in the chapter on university organization. As far as the university is concerned, there seems little promise that present practices will be changed in the near future. In secondary education the need of trained professional teachers is universally recognized and at least two States are trying to meet the emergency through advanced pedagogical training. There are two institutions which are avowed higher normal schools and two others that perform this function without bearing the name.

The Chilean Normal College.—The oldest normal school of college grade in South America is the Instituto Pedagogico of Chile, which was opened for instruction in April, 1890. In its modern organization the university of Chile contains theoretically a faculty of philosophy and letters, but the only section of the faculty that has been organized is the normal college. The Republic realized that its energies and resources could be better utilized in training a skilled professorate for its secondary schools than in fostering general literary culture. The latter might be ornamental, but the former was distinctly useful, and the results obtained by the normal college in the 20 years of its history have fully justified the policy. The institution has been the fountainhead of the national educational system. It has prepared teachers not only for the secondary schools but also for the primary normal schools, and through this channel its influence has extended to the humblest grades of public instruction.

Foreign professors.—Coincident with the creation of the school, the Government contracted with the Prussian Government for the services of six capable educators to direct the institution and to fill the more important chairs. The original contract was for a period of five years. At the end of that time some professors renewed the contract, others returned to Prussia, but in their stead new men came out, and there have always been from four to six Germans on the teaching staff. This group of foreigners has been considered the essential nucleus of the faculty. Chilean educators, many of them trained in the school itself, have been added from time to time to the staff, and the director has often been a Chilean, but the dominant influence has remained German. It is worthy of note that two of the original Prussian contractants are still members of the faculty, and one of them is now acting director.

General plan.—The policy of the Instituto Pedagogico has been to give the student accurate, thorough, and scientific instruction in the branches that he is preparing himself to teach, and at the same time instruct and train him in modern scientific methods. The departments of instruction include advanced study in all subjects that form a part of the curricula of secondary and normal schools, such as Spanish, French, English, mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, physiology, zoology, history, civics, geography, psychology, pedagogy, and methodology. For the purpose of furnishing facilities for practice teaching, two liceos—one for boys, the other for girls—are maintained in close proximity to the institute, and the professor of psychology is the titular head of the liceo for boys.

Coeducation.—When the Instituto Pedagogico was founded the students were all young men. No provision was made for women and, indeed, their advent was not thought of. At that time the State did not concern itself with the general education of girls beyond the primary grades, and naturally there was no necessity of preparing women secondary teachers. There were needed, however, women teachers for the girls' normal schools. A few young women asked admission to the institute. It was granted under certain restrictions and with some protest. It was the first instance of coeducation in Chile outside the lowest grades of the primary schools. Later the State began the foundation of high schools for girls. For these there were required ever-increasing numbers of women teachers, and the Instituto Pedagogico was the logical place for their preparation. Young women became more and more numerous in the school, and at present they outnumber the young men three to one.

Groups of studies.—As the object of the school is to prepare the graduate to teach a certain branch, or two or more related branches, free election of studies as practiced in many American colleges would not be compatible with the aims of the institution. It is not a college of liberal arts, but distinctly a higher normal school. The curriculum is, therefore, divided into groups, and the student's election privileges are restricted to choosing his group. Within the group the studies are definitely prescribed. Psychology, logic, ethics, political science, pedagogy, and methodology are common to all groups, as is also the requirement of practice teaching and observation.

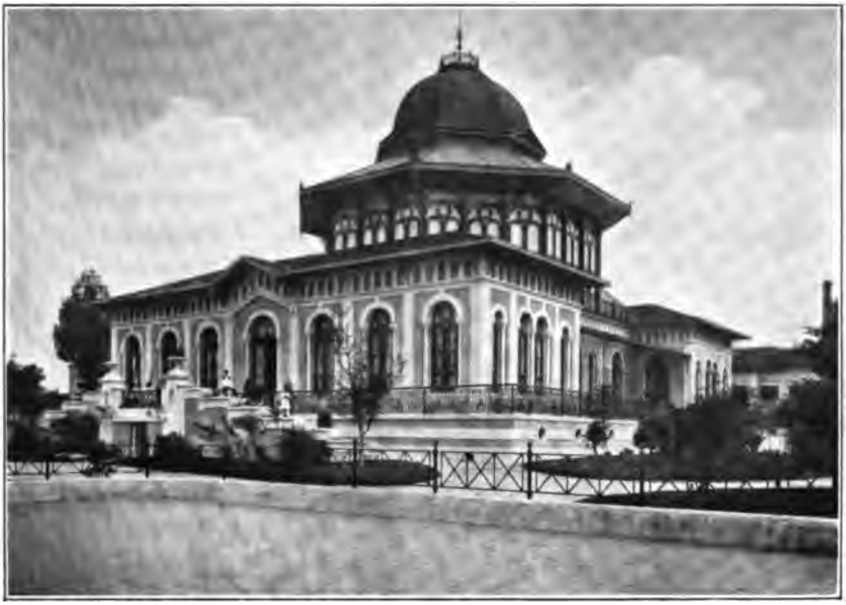
The groups are seven in number, each designated by the study or studies that constitute its major. The course of study comprises four years for each group, making about 60 year-hours, exclusive of practice teaching. Of these, 15 are common to all groups. The Spanish, French, English, and German groups require 25 hours in the major study and about 20 in another language. The history-geography group also gives 25 hours to the two majors and demands 20 hours in a foreign language. In the physico-mathematical and chemico-biological science groups no language (not even Spanish) is required, and the course is more compact and specialized. In the first, 20 hours are devoted to mathematics and 21 to physics; chemistry receives 4 hours. In the second, the biological sciences receive 22 hours, chemistry 18, and mathematics 8.

Students are graduates of a high school before entering the institute. Consequently, the work of the latter corresponds very closely, both in the grade of the studies and in the time required for their completion, to the North American college.

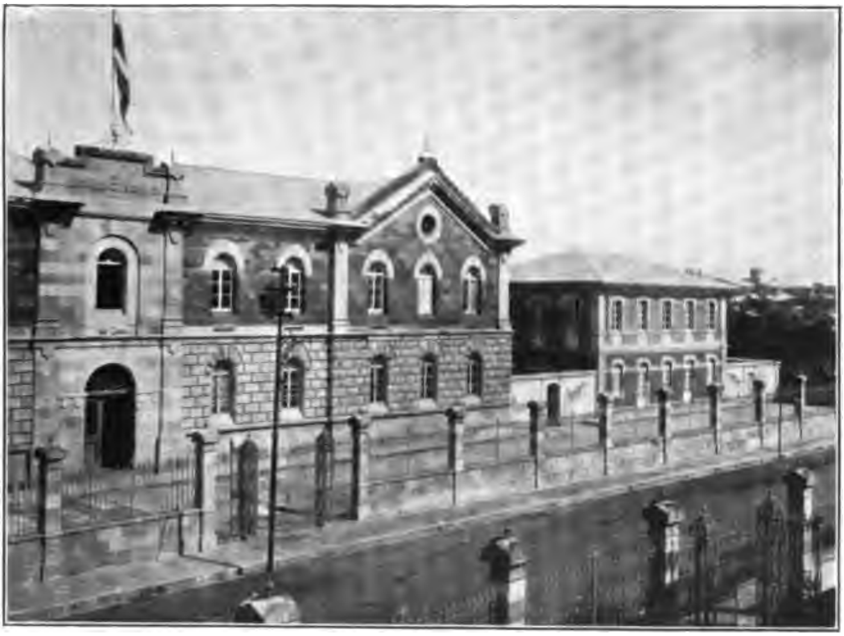
Latin.—A subject which is common to the language groups is Latin. In Chile, as in many other Spanish-American States, Latin and other dead languages are not only omitted from the curriculum whether it be a primary, secondary, or higher school, but are even forbidden by the law of the land. The German educators who formulated the curriculum and policy of the Instituto Pedagogico contended that serious instruction in Spanish and other Romanic languages required a certain familiarity with the parent tongue, since a just appreciation of the forms and syntactical structure of these modern languages could only be gained by a knowledge of the historic processes that changed Latin into the Neo-Latin languages. To meet this argument, Latin was introduced into the institute, although proscribed elsewhere, and a three-year course is given in the Spanish and French sections and one year in the English and German sections. The course is limited in scope, is chiefly grammatical, and is designed solely to serve as a basis for the historical study of modern languages.

Building and equipment.—The Instituto Pedagogico occupies a good building of two and three stories, which, in most respects, is well adapted to the work. The classrooms are ample and comfortably furnished. The library contains 3,000 volumes carefully chosen and suited to the work of professors and students. It only needs better cataloguing to adapt it to the needs of the institution.

The laboratories are excellent, and ample provision is made for individual laboratory work on the part of the students. The departments of history and geography, which are combined under one professor, are well equipped with a very large collection of maps, charts, and a special library. The most recent acquisition in the line of scientific equipment is a complete laboratory of experimental psychology. The liceo for boys, which constitutes a practice school



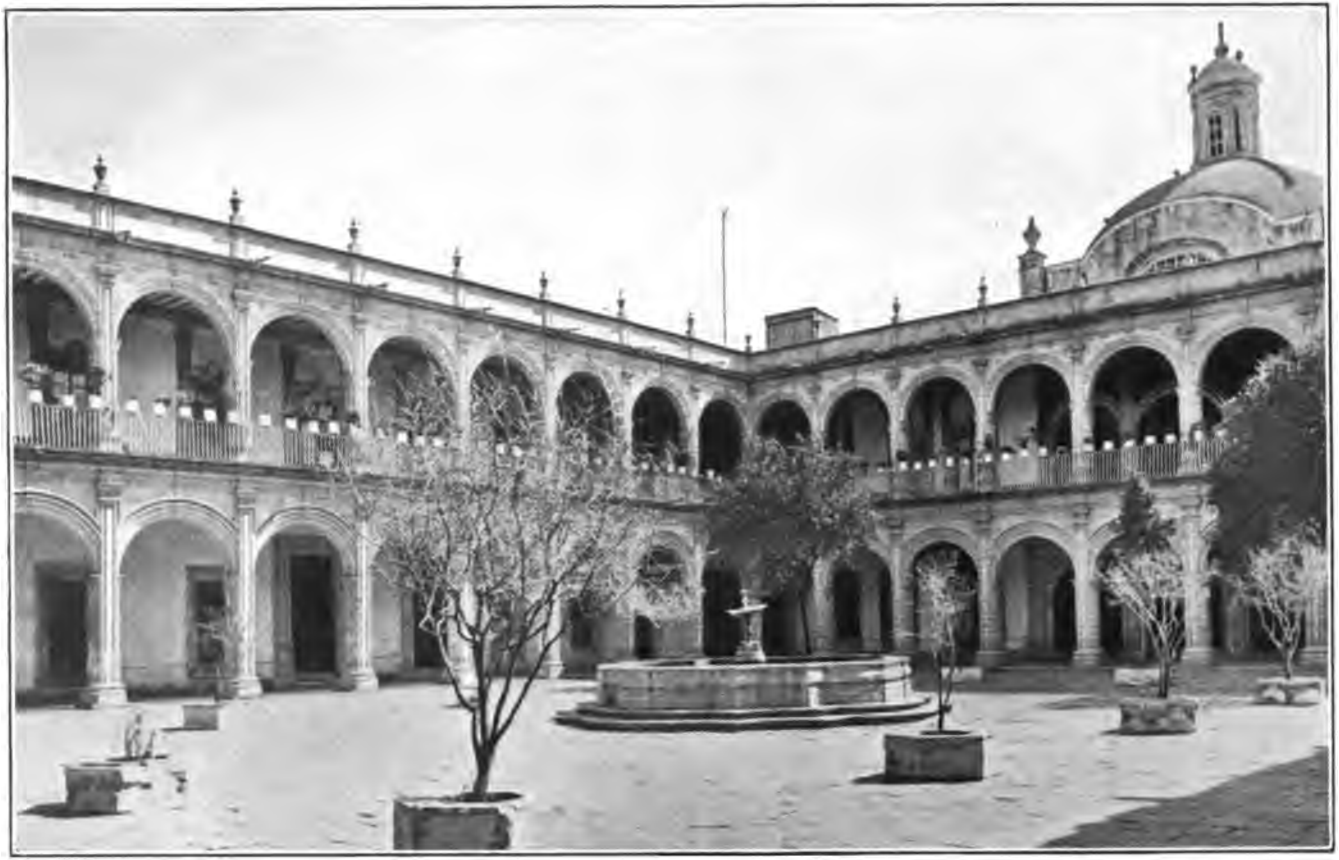
A. KINDERGARTEN, SAO PAULO, BRAZIL.



B. BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL, SAN JOSE, COSTA RICA.

A. NORMAL SCHOOL, SALTILLO, STATE OF COAHUILA, MEXICO.

B. MODEL SCHOOL, ITAPETININGA, SAO PAULO, BRAZIL.



COLLEGE OF LA PAZ, MEXICO CITY.

for the institute, occupies a new and handsome building directly in the rear, with a communicating passage through the patio; and the other practice school, the liceo for girls, is distant only two blocks.

Foreigner or native?—At different periods in the past decade a movement has developed to withdraw the institution from the direction of the German professors and replace them with native teachers, graduates of the school. The Government, however, has always opposed the idea, contending that the foreign professors have built up the school, formulated its policies and methods, given it an acknowledged prestige at home and abroad, and are still indispensable to its stability and further expansion. The movement, so far unsuccessful, springs from two sources. Chilean leaders in education, themselves well educated at home and many having even pursued postgraduate studies abroad, have the laudable ambition to take charge of their own national schools and establish their educational independence. They admit that the school needs perhaps foreign experts in some lines, but claim that the direction and general administration should now be intrusted to Chileans who have proved their worth and their ability. The other source of discontent is the feeling that Prussian methods lack elasticity, that they force all minds into the same rigid mold, and that as a result of the impression given in the Instituto Pedagogico all Chilean education is too formal and that initiative is sacrificed to method.

The Argentina higher normal school.—The marked success of the Instituto Pedagogico of Chile led Argentina to establish, in 1904, a similar institution under the name of Instituto Nacional del Profesorado Secundario. The need of trained teachers for the liceos and other schools of secondary grade was appreciated in Argentina at that time and is still felt today, but the higher normal school has not had the same success or achieved the same prominence as the Chilean institution. Different circumstances have contributed to this result. In the first place the school was founded much later in the historical development of secondary education. The bias had already been given and traditional practices already crystallized. The Chilean teachers' college was established at the psychological moment—at the time of educational expansion and the formulation of modern ideals in educational method. The Argentina institution came 30 years after the establishment of the primary normal schools, and was regarded as an interloper in the educational field. This feeling was accentuated by the presence in the national university of a regular faculty of letters and philosophy, which held that it was the special prerogative of the university to furnish teachers for the secondary schools; the faculties of letters and philosophy in the realm of literature, geography, and philosophy; the faculty of law in the subjects of civics and history; and the faculties of science and medicine in the departments of science. Subject to this antagonism the Instituto Nacional del Profesorado Secundario has not succeeded in making for itself a distinct place in the national system of education, in spite of its recognized utility. It lacks the prestige that the university possesses, has never had a suitable building, and has been compelled to fight for its very existence. As in Chile, a group of German professors was called to establish the school and direct its policy. This fact in itself has embittered the antagonism to the institution. Few countries are so intensely national as Argentina, and while the new school was a governmental creation, popular sentiment among educational classes resented the introduction of an institution designed to replace a traditional and national form. The intransigentism of the German professors, who insisted on transplanting intact the Prussian system to Argentine soil irrespective of local conditions, did not tend to allay the sentiment of rivalry and resentment. These discouraging features, added to the subsequent establishment of pedagogical courses in the University of Buenos Aires and the formation of a pedagogical section in the new University of La Plata, have restricted the usefulness of the higher normal school.

Curriculum.—The course of study corresponds very closely to that of the Instituto Pedagogico of Santiago both in length of term and in subject matter. In the matter of groups, however, there is more diversity, at least in form. The Argentine school contains two general groups, one embracing languages, literature, philosophy, and the social science; the other mathematics and all other sciences. The first group contains nine subdivisions, the second five. All biological sciences are grouped in one section. The student elects two subdivisions in one of the two general groups. Certain subdivisions must be combined, such as political science and history, geography and geology, mineralogy and chemistry. The classes in psychology, pedagogy, etc., together with practice teaching and observation, are common to all. The studies in foreign languages are not pursued in the institution itself. Students electing any one of these divisions follow the classes in a special school that will be described later.

Special course.—In addition to the regular four-year course for high-school graduates, the institute maintains a short course of one year for graduates of the university who desire to add a teacher's diploma to the professional title or doctorate received in a faculty. These students come principally from the faculties of law and medicine, since, as has already been noticed, a lawyer or physician frequently joins the task of teaching in a secondary or special school with the practice of his profession. The course of study for these *diplomados* consists of a general four-hour course in psychology and pedagogy, and another six-hour course in the methodology and practice teaching of the specialty for which the candidate's university studies have prepared him.

Equipment.—The institute has charge of one of the liceos of Buenos Aires, which serves as its model school and field for practice teaching. The liceo is the real center of the institute's life. Here are located the administrative offices and the departments of chemistry and biological sciences. Other departments are distributed among four different rented houses in the neighborhood. These buildings are necessarily ill-adapted to teaching purposes, especially when a laboratory forms part of a department, and they also involve considerable expense, since in addition to the cost of alterations the annual rental is $6,000.

A teachers' college in the university.—A second institution for higher normal instruction in Argentina is the result of a spontaneous evolution of the national education, and does not even bear the name of normal school. The University of Buenos Aires is one of the few Latin-American universities that have retained a real faculty of philosophy and letters. In its present organization, it includes departments of philosophy, education, history, geography, sociology, anthropology, American archeology, Latin and Greek languages and literatures, esthetics and general literature, and the literatures of Spain and southern Europe. There are 20 full professors and 12 substitute and assistant professors. Five years are prescribed for the complete course, which is divided about equally between literary and philosophical studies. On the completion of the course, the passing of a comprehensive oral examination, and the presentation of an acceptable thesis the student receives the degree of doctor of philosophy and letters. In this part of its work the faculty is following its historical function. The regulations, however, permit a student to elect one or more lines of study, and after he has completed the full course offered in these departments, passed a comprehensive examination, and submitted a thesis, he is eligible to the title of professor. As a matter of fact, candidates for the doctorate are few. Nearly all students are preparing to teach in the secondary schools. Even those who elect the regular course and take the doctor's degree look forward to the professorate, but in a higher sphere.

In order to meet this new demand, the faculty has added courses in educational science and experimental psychology and established an efficient psychological laboratory. In this way, through the natural course of events and with the simple desire to meet a new demand, the college of letters and philosophy in the University of Buenos Aires has become in reality, although not in name, a teachers' college. It has, however, no practice school and its graduates receive no experimental training in the art of teaching. This fact differentiates it from the Instituto Nacional del Profesorado

Secundario, and is one of the causes of rivalry between the two institutions. The one contends that knowledge of the subject and theoretic pedagogy are sufficient to make the teacher; the other insists on the necessity of practical training. The graduates of this faculty become teachers of literature, language, history, geography, civics, and philosophy only, since no courses are offered in sciences. Teachers of science must receive their preparation either in the National Institute or in the faculties of science and medicine. The normal-school tendency of the faculty of letters can be traced in the increasing number of women students. At present the women are in the majority. The ratio is yearly increasing, and the movement is sure to continue unless teaching can be made more attractive to the ambitious young man.

Another teachers' college.—The University of La Plata also makes provision for the training of teachers in its department of pedagogics, which forms one section of the faculty of social and juridical sciences. The introduction of pedagogy was not an evolution, as in the University of Buenos Aires. La Plata entertains the distinct ambition of enriching all grades of instruction by developing real scholars and scientists and by training a superior professorate. Its pedagogical section is, therefore, carefully and highly organized. There are two courses of study—the first, for those who have already acquired knowledge of the subjects they intend to teach; the other, for students in other departments of the university who wish to train themselves for teachers at the same that they pursue scientific or literary studies. The first course is intensive during the first two years, with 30 hours per week of class and laboratory exercises and practice teaching. Then follow two more years of advanced pedagogical study, requiring but a few hours per week, and which may be done in connection with actual teaching if the student has a position in La Plata or a neighboring town. The degree for this course is professor of secondary instruction.

The other course is not so intensive nor so comprehensive. It covers three years, includes psychology, methodology, history and science of education and school legislation, requires considerable observation and practice teaching, and leads to the degree of professor of a designated subject or subjects, depending upon the line of specialization in the university. The teachers' section in La Plata has the advantage, not possessed by the University of Buenos Aires, of having abundant opportunities for practical instruction. There are two preparatory schools, one for boys the other for girls, which form an organic part of the university and are controlled by the dean of the pedagogical section. These are used as practice schools. There is also a primary school affiliated with the university, which serves as a practice school for primary and other teachers who come to the university for the intensive course in scientific and practical pedagogy.

SPECIAL NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Argentina possesses two special normal schools of unusual interest. An institution for the preparation of teachers of foreign languages is located at the capital, and forms a part of the national system of education; the other is a provincial establishment for the training of men teachers for the rural schools.

The foreign-language training school is known as La Escuela Normal de Lenguas Vivas. Modern languages occupy a most important position in all schools of secondary grade, liceos and normal, commercial and industrial institutions. As far as the practical side is concerned, they are excellently taught, but in order to improve still more the practical teaching of foreign languages the Government founded this special school, and decreed a course of study that is as efficient as it is unique. The institution comprises two schools, a primary and a secondary. In the first is given a regular primary education with the addition of one or two foreign languages, French and English. The language instruction is eminently practical, and the pupils learn to understand and speak as well as to read and write. On entering the upper school the student elects the langauge she expects to teach—it is a school for girls only—and from this time on all instruction in all subjects of the curriculum, except Spanish, is given in the language which the student is preparing to teach, and usually by teachers for whom this language is the mother tongue. In other words, the high school is an English school for one section and a French school for the other. The curriculum varies somewhat for the different sections; for example, history in the French section means especially history of France and of the French; in the other section the stress is laid on English history. The same is true of geography and civics, and necessarily the studies in literature are totally different. The study of the language itself is also continued, so that by the time the girl finishes her high-school course she is admirably grounded in the foreign tongue, and at the same time has studied the people, their history, literature and customs, society, and politics. In addition, she has studied methodology, and has been trained in the art of teaching the language by means of practice lessons in the primary department. The curriculum of the preparatory school covers three years and that of the high school four years. For the preparation of foreign-language teachers a better method could scarcely be devised.

The Alberdi School.—In a country so distinctly agricultural as Argentina the rural school is a matter of supreme importance, and when it is also conceded that it should be a primary agricultural school as well as a nursery for the "three R's," the formation of a teaching corps becomes a serious problem. The ordinary normal graduate is seldom found in the country. The salary is too small, and the material difficulties are forbidding to a young man accustomed to urban life. Besides, in Argentina, as in the United States, few young men prepare themselves to teach in elementary schools, either rural or urban. The normal school at Parana, one of the oldest and most efficient in Argentina, has not graduated a dozen men in the last dozen years in the elementary teachers' course. This dearth of men teachers has resulted in filling the country schools with women, or with men who have no pedagogical training and little interest in the profession of education.

It remained for the Province of Entre Rios, of which the capital is Parana, to inaugurate a plan that aims to accomplish two much-desired results: First, to provide the country schools with men teachers who sympathize with country life; second, to train these teachers in agriculture as well as in pedagogy. In 1905 there was founded in the open country, 10 miles from Parana, a special normal school for boys, in which the studies are half academic and half agricultural. It is a school farm. The land comprises 400 hectares and cost, with the original farm building, $11,000. Other buildings have since been erected, some for school purposes, others for the uses of the farm. The pupils are all boarders. The Province established 30 free scholarships on the opening of the school, and pledged itself to increase the number as the plant was enlarged and the institution proved its usefulness. A day primary school is maintained on the farm for the children of the neighborhood, and it serves as a model and practice school.

The country schools in Latin America do not contain the full complement of six grades, but are usually limited to three or four. A country teacher, therefore, does not need a large academic equipment. Boys who have completed the short elementary course of the rural school can therefore enter the Alberdi Normal and Agricultural Institute. The course of study here covers three years. As far as the academic studies are concerned the curriculum is extremely simple, being a continuation of only those subjects that the boy has pursued in the primary school and which he in turn will have to teach—Spanish, arithmetic, elementary geometry and drawing, history, civics, and geography. Each of these subjects is continued throughout the entire three years. The professional studies consist of pedagogy, likewise continued during the three years, and such practical subjects as school hygiene, practical psychology, methodology of elementary subjects, together with observation and practice teaching.

The studies in agriculture are not a side issue or a species of dilettantism. The institution is as much an agricultural school as a normal school. There is a professor of agriculture, another of zootechnics, and a third of applied sciences. The agricultural studies run parallel with the academic throughout the entire course and are essentially practical. Instruction is given in the field, and much of the cultivation and care of live stock is the work of the students themselves. After three years of training the student of "Alberdi" is an expert agriculturist as well as a schoolmaster, and the Province of Entre Rios purposes to disseminate this technical knowledge through the rural population by means of the country school. Each rural school has 4 hectares of land, which constitute the school garden and farm. The regular elementary curriculum includes agriculture, theoretical and practical, as does the rural normal school, and the teacher, who is both *normalista* and *agricultor*, is expected to devote no less attention to scientific and practical education in agriculture than he does to academic instruction. The Province provides a house for the teacher beside the school building. The 4 hectares of land are in a sense the teacher's property while he remains in the position, and the products of the tract are his to use or to sell. Under such a system the rural school is more than a mere school; it is a school farm where the two elements of a rural education receive equal attention.

CHAPTER XI.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

This branch of instruction has taken a strong hold upon the Latin-American mind. The rapidly increasing commerce, better means of communication through international railways and faster steamship lines, and the conviction now firmly established that national superiority in the present era must be based on economic advantage have led the Latin-American countries, almost without exception, to foster commercial education by all the means within their command. In some States, it is made almost a fetich. Aside from the purely pedagogic and economic reasons that prompt the movement, there are two others which are distinctly political. Under the old régime of semi-isolation to which these countries, on account of their geographical position, were subjected, the only career of importance open to young men was that of the so-called liberal professions, and these led more or less directly to political life. As a result, the countries were burdened with hosts of factious, even if well-meaning politicians. This class, embracing the best blood and the strongest brains of the State, was not productive, and economic activities either languished or passed into the hands of foreigners.

Outside capital entered with the opening of commercial advantages, but it did not come to increase the productivity of native companies and local commercial houses; it came as a distinct foreign corporation, having a foreign manager, and, except in the humblest stations, foreign employees. These men rarely entertained the idea of settling definitely in the country and acquiring citizenship. Their stay was but temporary, and in time they were replaced by a new contingent from across the seas. It was a foreign commercial invasion, made possible largely because of the distaste and educational unfitness of the native for commercial pursuits. The double danger of internal political strife and of external commercial domination came in time to be keenly realized by farseeing statesmen. An antidote for both seemed to be the commercial school. It would dignify economic activities hitherto disdained; it would draw off from the unproductive liberal professions and thus indirectly from political life a portion of the youth of the nation, and it would prepare a phalanx of young men who could combat the foreign tradesmen with his own weapons. From a patriotic point of view, these motives are entirely praiseworthy. They have contributed very largely to the foundation of commercial schools, and to the formation of public opinion in favor of an education which was foreign to the spirit and tradition of the race. The schools have realized in a very large measure the patriotic purposes that contributed to their establishment. In the more commercial nations political strife has become less intense, commercial and industrial pursuits have risen in social estimation, trade is claiming more and more of the brains of the nation, and local initiative is developing industries that in former times invariably awaited the coming of the foreign capitalist. Other forces have doubtless aided in the movement, but the influence of the school is not to be minimized, and the Latin-American with his love of system has faith in the school because it is an organized, systematic agency.

Different systems.—Although commercial education is very general it is organized on different lines in different countries. In some it is made an integral required branch in all secondary instruction; in others it is merely a section of the high-school course, existing side by side with the literary and scientific courses; in still others it is a separate school, a distinct commercial high school. The last-named type is perhaps the most favored. Educators maintain that it produces the best results, because of its segregation from the traditional forms of instruction; that the pupils are removed from the allurements of the literary course that prepares for the university, and from the aristocratic, nonpractical atmosphere which it develops; and that the prestige of the school is advanced by the separate organization. Opposing these arguments it may be said that the union of distinct courses in the same school, under the same general management, has its advantages and is much more economical. That it is not incompatible with conditions in Spanish America is proved by the experience of some countries, notably Costa Rica.

The Chilean system.—Chile is the strongest advocate of the separate school, and the system has there attained unquestionable success. Although the policy of commercial education is still young in Chile, and the first schools were established little more than a decade ago, there are already a dozen State schools in as many towns, and the enrollment reaches the surprising figure of 2,000 in the day classes alone. In the city schools the registration in evening classes is often as great as in the day section. If to these are added the enrollment of commercial sections in private and church schools, the total is comparatively large.

Curriculum.—The course of study covers four years, of which the first is called preparatory. The commercial school of Chile is not of high-school rank in its first years. Of the common primary schools only a limited number maintain the full complement of six grades; many are of second rank, containing but three or four grades and giving only the rudiments of a common-school education, reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic. From these "folk schools" comes the greatest number of commercial-school pupils, and a certain additional preparation is necessary. This is given in the first or preparatory year. The mother tongue, arithmetic, and penmanship are continued; geography, history, and elementary science are introduced, and the study of English is begun with six hours of class work per week. The Chilean commercial school is therefore midway between an elementary school and a high school. The first year, at least, is distinctly primary, but the preparation it affords is better than could be given in a regular primary school, since studies in history and geography are given a commercial bias, and the introduction of a foreign language at an early stage constitutes a decided advantage for a commercial career.

Below is given a course of study for the last three years, which constitute the commercial school proper:

Chilean commercial course of study.

Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.		
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.
English	6	6	6
German	4	3	3
Bookkeeping and office practice	3	4	10
Commercial arithmetic	5	5	3
Stenography, typewriting, and drawing	4	2	2
Commercial law and tariff legislation	....	3	3
Commercial geography and history, and political economy	2	4	4
Spanish and commercial forms	4	3	....
Natural and physical sciences, and commercial products	4	3	3
Hygiene	....	....	2
Total	32	33	36

The curriculum is not absolutely uniform for all schools, but the variations are so insignificant that it would be useless to enter into many details. French is sometimes substituted for German, but English is everywhere required, and the amount of time devoted to it varies but little.

Interest in commercial education.—Commercial education enjoys in Chile a very high degree of public and governmental favor. The State takes pride in equipping the schools to the full extent of its ability, and the local municipality and chamber of commerce often add to the equipment of the home institution. It even appeals to individual generosity above other forms of education because of its evidently practical nature, and business men make donations to the support and betterment of the institution.

Methods.—Although the commercial high school of Chile is one form of secondary instruction and not merely a business college, its avowed policy is to emphasize the practical. Instruction in all lines becomes less bookish, less dogmatic than elsewhere, and in the teaching of geography, history, and languages material devices are used wherever the subject will permit and the resources of the school make possible. The commercial museum, with its exhibits of raw and manufactured articles, native woods, minerals, grains, and charts representing processes of manufacture and types of machinery too bulky or expensive for exhibition, forms a distinct feature of every school. Its extent varies with the size and resources of the institution, but its value in instruction is universally recognized.

Instructors.—Another fact that explains the quality of instruction in the commercial school is the number of teachers that devote all their time to the one institution. In the liceo, with its wide range of studies and the policy of specialization prevalent in South America, many instructors teach but a short time each day, and spend the remainder of the day in other schools or in the practice of a profession. Since the commercial school has a relatively short curriculum and many subjects are continued throughout the entire course, most teachers can be employed throughout the entire scholastic day. This creates a unity of purpose and a feeling of pride in the institution that is conducive of better results.

The parent school.—The general excellence and uniformity of aim and method that mark all commercial schools in Chile are due in large measure to the normal course, which forms an important section of the Escuela Superior de Comercio of Santiago. This school is the oldest in the country, and in addition to the regular course similar to that in other schools maintains two advanced sections of two years each. One is a general course in commerce, economics, and administration; the other offers special training for teachers in commercial schools. The program of studies in the latter section is but a continuation of the most important subjects in the lower school, with the addition of a course in methodology. Particular attention is given to foreign-language study. The normal course itself is bifurcated. Foreign language and methodology are common to both divisions, but in one mathematics and bookkeeping form the specialty, while in the other it is science and commercial technology. The importance of this commercial normal course can hardly be overestimated. In the era of the establishment of commercial schools it sent out men with similar ideals and well-formed conceptions of the nature, type, and utility of this form of instruction, and has ever since remained a center to which all look for inspiration and improved methods. Most principals and many professors of the commercial schools in the Provinces are graduates or former students of the central school at Santiago.

The Argentine type.—The type of commercial education in Argentina is much the same as in Chile, but the federated system of government in the former country prevents the unity and uniformity that characterize the Chilean schools. The Argentine States are independent in affairs educational; consequently, provincial schools vary greatly, not only in curriculum but in method and purpose. The Federal Government, however, has the right to establish and maintain schools on its own account if it so decides, and in recent years the tendency has been in favor of central control of education—primary, special, and higher. Many States had already founded commercial schools, but facilities and equipment were often insufficient and unworthy of the economic advance of the country. The Federal Government at last came to the support of this type of education, and has founded a chain of schools under the name of Escuelas Comerciales de la Nación, of which there were seven in existence in 1911—three in the capital and one each in Rosario, Bahia Blanca, Tucuman, and Concordia. One of the three at Buenos Aires is for women only. In the provincial towns some of the schools are coeducational. Three grades of diplomas are granted. That of *dependiente idoneo* requires three years of study; that of *tenedor de libros*, four years; and that of *perito mercantil*, five years. The two higher schools of commerce at Buenos Aires and Rosario offer also an advanced course of three years for public accountants. For entrance to this course the diploma of commercial expert (perito mercantil), or an examination covering similarly advanced studies, is required. It is a course of university grade, and a minimum age of 19 is required for entrance.

A commercial high school.—The standard course in the Argentine commercial school is that which leads to the title of *perito mercantil* and embraces five years of study. This is the same length of curriculum as in the regular Argentine liceo, and as entrance requirements are identical for the two the commercial school is in reality a high school. In this respect it differs from the commercial school of Chile, which articulates with the third or fourth grade of the elementary school. The more advanced entrance requirements and the longer curriculum permit the Argentine school to give more attention to nontechnical studies. Consequently the school is an institution of general culture as well as a commercial school. A schedule of this course is herewith presented.

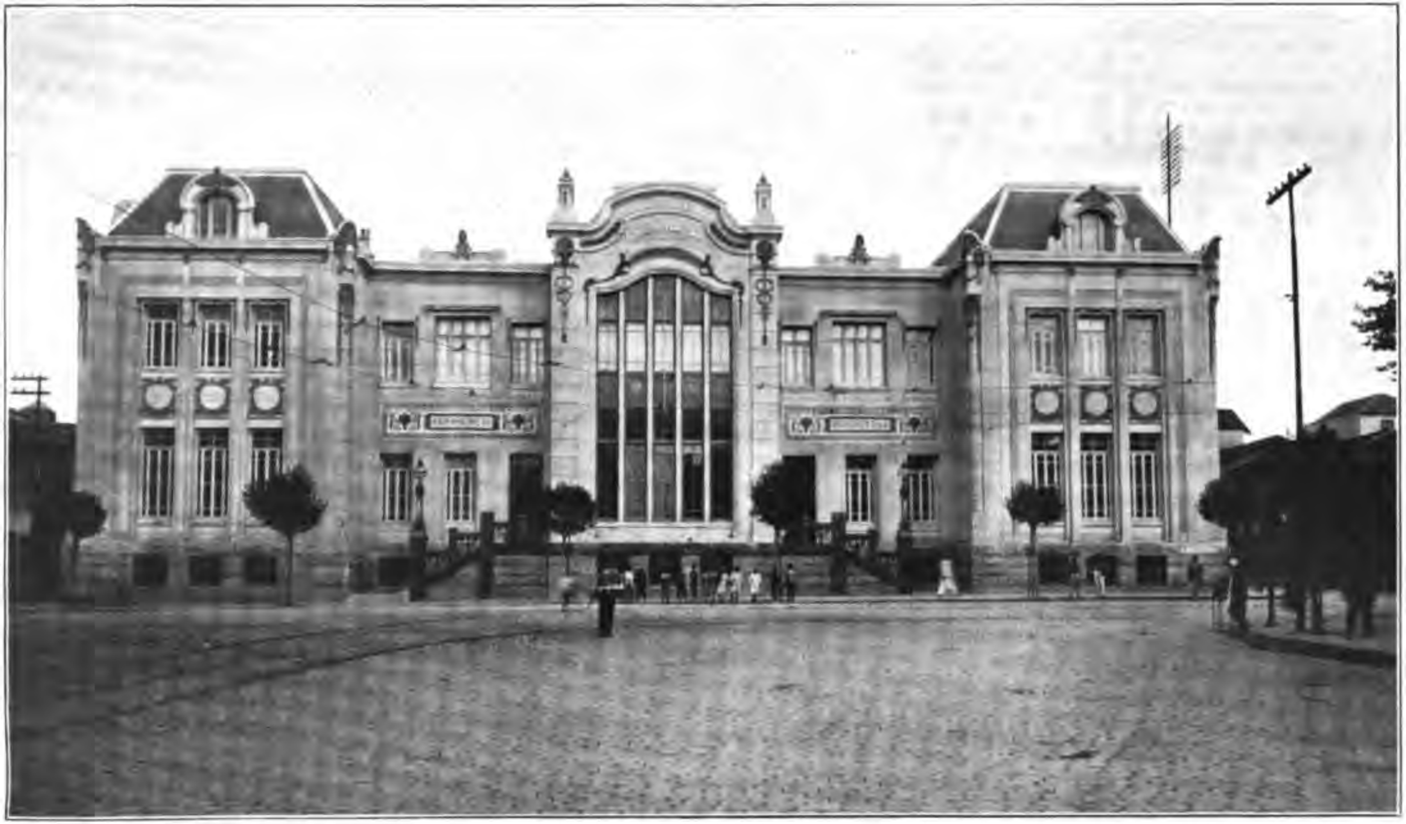
Argentine commercial school course.

Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.				
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.
Mathematics and drawing	6	6	5	3	3
Spanish and commercial correspondence	6	4	3	3	3
Civics and morals			2		
General and Argentine history	4	3			
General and Argentine geography	4	3			
Penmanship	4	2			
Commercial geography and history			4	4	
Natural science			3	3	
Bookkeeping		4	5	5	5
Commercial products				2	3
Political economy					2
Stenography and typewriting		2	2	2	2
Fiscal and tariff legislation					3
Elementary commercial and civil law				2	3
English, French, German, or Italian	6	6	6	6	6
Total	30	30	30	30	30

Schools of Commerce.—In Bolivia and Uruguay commercial instruction is organized not as a part of secondary education but as a faculty of university grade. A high-school diploma or an examination covering the secondary school curriculum is required for entrance. These faculties were established for advanced study in commerce, finance, and administration. Among their functions is included the training of consuls, collectors of customs, public accountants, and administrators of State properties. The school at La Paz has always been an independent faculty, since there are no universities in Bolivia. The institution at Montevideo was incorporated into the university in 1904, but seven years later was organized as an independent school of commerce. It retains, however, much the same characteristics as heretofore, and is housed in the same building as the faculty of law. The change is almost wholly one of name, and in becoming an independent institution it has but followed the same tendency toward decentralization which has been shown by other institutions of higher education in Uruguay. In recent years the agricultural and veterinary faculties have also been detached from the university and erected into separate schools. The Montevideo school has maintained but a single course of study, extending over three years, and leading to the diploma of *perito mercantil.* The first two years of the same course, with the omission of foreign language study, leads to the lesser diploma of *contador.* The Bolivian school at La Paz has a course of study of five years which is both more extensive in scope and more intensive in content. The first two years are termed "preparatory," and include courses in mathematics, physics, chemistry, commercial geography and history, French, and English (both languages have already been studied in the lower school), and beginning courses in stenography and typewriting. In the regular three-year course that follows, the study of foreign languages is continued, but the greater part of the student's time is given to the more technical branches, such as commercial operations, banking, exchange, commercial law, etc. The last year contains two divisions. One prepares especially for banking and international commerce; the other for the profession of consul, collector of customs, and other governmental administrative parts.

The commercial school of La Paz offers also a two-year course for girls. This section is distinctly elementary and practical, and a primary education only is required for entrance.

Commercial education in Brazil.—The subject of commercial education has not received the same attention or reached the same stage of development in Brazil that it has in certain other countries of South America. The Federal Government has established no school of this class and only one State has made the commercial school a regular part of the educational system. Neither are commercial branches included in the high-school curricula. The few commercial schools that exist are private foundations. In nearly every case they receive subsidies from the State or municipality, but there is no unity of method, purpose, or curriculum. Less than a dozen schools are in operation and the total enrollment does not exceed 1,000. The two most important are the School of Commerce at Sao Paulo and the Academy of Commerce at Rio de Janeiro, but in both the scope of the curriculum is narrower and the amount of technical study less than in the national commercial schools of Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay. The school at Rio de Janeiro is an adjunct of a commercial museum, which is much more important than the school, and is doing a valuable service in advertising abroad Brazilian products and Brazilian commercial opportunities. The school holds only evening sessions. This is true also of the regular course in the school of Sao Paulo. The latter institution possesses a magnificent building, the generous gift of a public-spirited citizen. The course of study comprises four years, including a preparatory year. For admission only the most elementary education is required. The first three years are devoted wholly to the study of foreign languages and elementary subjects, with the exception of a class in bookkeeping in the third year. To the fourth year are assigned the really technical branches. An advanced course of two years prepares for banking, international commerce, and consular service, but the enrollment in this section is very small. Brazil is just awakening to the advantages of public commercial schools. Small centers are beginning to establish schools after the model of the one at Sao Paulo. Like the parent institution they are conducted in the evening only, and the patronage comes almost entirely from young men already in business positions.



SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, SAO PAULO, BRAZIL.

Evening classes.—It is not alone in Brazil that evening classes in commercial schools are in vogue. In the countries that have the most successful systems of commercial education, the night school rivals the day section. Particularly is this true in the cities. At Valparaiso, Buenos Aires, and Rosario the enrollment in the evening classes constitutes two-fifths of the entire registration. Every national school of commerce in Argentina is required by law to maintain evening classes. The course of study in the night school is not merely preliminary or special. The entire curriculum of the first four years is repeated, and a student may graduate in this section, receiving either of the two elementary diplomas.

In the other countries.—The Federal Government of Mexico maintains at the capital two national schools of commerce, one for men, the other for women. Admission is based upon the completion of the higher primary curriculum, and the course of study extends over two years. The annual enrollment is six or seven hundred.

Peru and Colombia have a mixed system of State commercial schools. In the former there is a commercial college at Lima which receives national and municipal subsidies, and two primary commercial and industrial schools at Yurimaguas and Iquitos. In addition, the national high schools contain a section of commercial studies.

In the reorganization of her educational system, Colombia has planned the establishment of commercial colleges in the provincial universities and the incorporation of commercial studies in one type of national high schools. The grade of instruction will be much the same in both institutions.

Commercial studies in high schools.—The other countries of Latin America do not maintain separate schools of commerce, but in practically all some provision is made for commercial education. Many private commercial schools are regularly subsidized. In addition, commercial studies are introduced into the secondary school curriculum. This method assumes three distinct forms, depending upon the form of high-school organization. In most countries the regular high-school curriculum comprises but a single course of study, which is uniform for all pupils. In such cases the commercial studies are made a part of the common curriculum and are required of all. Where this organization is followed, the commercial branches are necessarily limited in number, elementary in character, and reserved for the last years. They can include nothing more than commercial arithmetic and the elements of bookkeeping. Moreover, they are of little value for encouraging industrial activities, since boys who complete the regular secondary studies are destined for the university and the liberal professions. This type is exemplified in the high schools of Guatemala, Salvador, and Venezuela.

The second type of commercial education in the high school is that in which it is made a parallel course equal in length with the others. This type is exemplified in the *liceo moderno* of Bogota, in which one section is distinctly commercial and the other is scientific. Colombia is one of the very few countries in Latin America that has retained the old classical high school with courses in Latin and Greek. But beside the classical liceo there has been created in recent years the modern liceo, and in this latter commercial studies have found their place as a separate section. The same system is applied in Cuba, except that there is only one class of high schools, including all sections. The course of study covers five years. Haiti has an organization similar to that of Colombia.

The third type is that in which all forms of secondary instruction are united in one school and where the studies of the first years are common to all. The best example of this type in Latin America is the organization of Costa Rica. During four years the studies are the same for all. At the end of this time three sections are formed—literary, commercial, and normal. The first two sections continue their studies for two years and the normal section for three years. In the commercial course the study of the national language and of English and French is continued, and the following technical branches are introduced with two and three recitations each per week: Bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, and geography, industrial technology, commercial products, stenography and typewriting, political economy, and commercial law.

Private commercial colleges.—In addition to the regular State schools of different grades, commercial education is promoted in private business colleges organized after the popular North American model and conducted as a gainful enterprise. In educational merit they naturally vary greatly. Some are recognized as possessing very considerable merit and receive subsidies from the Government or municipality.

Church schools.—Still another class of commercial schools are those maintained by religious orders of the Roman Catholic Church and by the various Protestant societies. These schools recognize the popularity of the business course and are not slow to incorporate it into the organization of the school for the purpose of attracting patronage. The Salesian Brothers, who specialize in various forms of practical education, almost invariably include in their school a commercial section. Protestant institutions, which are to be found in almost all important centers, possess certain distinct advantages for this form of education, in that they are usually conducted by English-speaking persons, and much of the instruction is given in this language. English is everywhere recognized as the most important language for business, and many pupils attend these schools in preference to others, because they offer exceptional advantages for acquiring English in an easy and practical manner.

General status of commercial education.—In conclusion, it can be stated that the impulse toward commercial education in Latin America is very marked. It is one more manifestation of the modern, practical spirit which is moving in these countries. Some forms of the instruction given are much more efficient than others. When injected into an already overcrowded and uniform secondary curriculum and confined to rudimentary courses it can accomplish little good, but where it is made a distinct type of education, whether in separate schools or in a separate section of the high school, it has its own educative and utilitarian value, besides tending to modernize methods of instruction throughout the entire institution.

CHAPTER XII.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

In the past two decades Latin America has shared with the rest of the world an intensified interest in scientific cultivation of the soil, and in agricultural education as a necessary antecedent to better agricultural conditions. There is scarcely a country in Latin America that has not its agricultural college, one or more experiment stations, and other organized agencies for the dissemination of this branch of knowledge. The movement has resulted from two causes. First, the general advance in industrial life that has taken place at home; and second, the special interest in agricultural education that has developed in recent times in Europe and North America. Better industrial conditions in Latin America have improved the markets for agricultural products at home, and increased facilities for transportation by land and by sea have made Latin-American products a large factor in the world's markets. It became worth while, therefore, to study agriculture with a view to improving the quality and increasing the production. The example of the great agricultural nations stimulated the movement. As stated elsewhere, the Latin American ardently desires for his country the best and most progressive things of the world. He is quick to adopt a new idea, a new theory, or a new process. Modern agricultural education and experimentation have been accepted, therefore, in Latin America with the same fervor as elsewhere, notwithstanding the fact that conditions are less favorable for their practical application. Each South American nation, with the exception of Ecuador and Venezuela, has one or more agricultural colleges for advanced study in this science. Venezuela has recently employed a European specialist to study conditions in the country and advise the form of agricultural education best suited to her needs and capacity.[1] The smaller countries of Central America content themselves with elementary forms of agricultural education in connection with the primary school, but Honduras has recently inaugurated a policy of extending the scope of its agricultural instruction and of fostering in an especial manner this form of education. Prior to 1907 Mexico had only a moribund college of agriculture. In that year the institution was reorganized, the curriculum changed, the plant improved, and practice joined with theory. The enrollment increased manyfold in a single year. The latest available statistics give 330 students in agriculture and 144 in veterinary science. Santo Domingo and Haiti each has a secondary school of agriculture. In the latter country it is combined with an industrial school called Ecole des Sciences Appliquées. The institution is a private foundation, but since 1905 has received an annual governmental subsidy. The course of study in agriculture extends over two years following a preparatory year in general scientific subjects. The school possesses a plot of ground for practical farming. Cuba has a regular agricultural college, which forms a department of the University of Habana.

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[1] On April 15, 1912, a decree was promulgated establishing a college of agriculture and veterinary science in Venezuela. The location of the institution was to be decided by the National Congress.

At different epochs during the nineteenth century, there were sporadic attempts in different countries of South America to establish regular agricultural education. However, interest soon waned or conditions prevented the accomplishment of the enterprise, and it was not until late in the century that any permanent institutions were founded. The schools that exist at present represent two distinct categories and will be considered separately.

Agricultural colleges.—The higher schools can be designated as agricultural colleges, since they are on the same plane, as far as entrance requirements are concerned, as the professional schools of law, engineering, etc. Except in Argentina the agricultural college does not form a part of the university. Elsewhere it is an independent institution, and instead of being subject to the ministry of public instruction, it is responsible to the department of agriculture. Some institutions were of college rank from the date of their foundation, others represent a gradual evolution from a primary agricultural school (Escuela practica de agricultura).

The oldest agricultural college of South America is the Instituto Agricola of Chile, founded in 1876, and located at Santiago. No other permanent foundation of college grade was effected until 1897, when the school at La Plata was established as an outgrowth of the practical school of Santa Catalina. In 1905 it was incorporated into the University of La Plata as a faculty. The State of Sao Paulo, in Brazil, established its college at Piracicaba in 1900. The college of Peru, at Lima, was definitively organized in 1901. Uruguay added a faculty of agriculture to the university of Montevideo in 1906, but two years later made it a separate institution. The college of agriculture in Buenos Aires was organized in 1904, and incorporated into the university in 1909 as a faculty of agriculture and veterinary science. In 1910 Colombia authorized by law the establishment of an agricultural and mechanical college in connection with the University of Cauca. The list, as now constituted, of national colleges of agriculture in South America was completed in 1911 when Bolivia opened one at Cochabamba and Brazil began the organization of a national institute at Rio de Janeiro. In the latter case the technical courses in agriculture were removed from the engineering school and transferred to a new plant on the outskirts of the city, where practical application can be combined with theoretical instruction.

With the exception, therefore, of the institute of Chile, Latin-American colleges of agriculture are of very recent establishment. Since it was a new form of education, and in the main a direct importation from Europe and North America, few States possessed the personnel required for directing and teaching in such institutions. Often the first principals and professors were brought from Europe or the United States and many faculties still contain a large number of foreigners. Belgium especially, on account of the excellent reputation of its agricultural schools, has furnished a large number of teachers. The faculty of an agricultural college in South America is more often than not a cosmopolitan club. It is not unusual to find representatives from a half dozen different nationalities. In order to train a corps of native principals and professors, the States have granted liberal scholarships for study abroad in this line of specialization. Gradually the schools are filling up with native-born teachers.

Expenditures for agricultural colleges.—The States have been lavish in their expenditures for agricultural education. The teaching staff, so largely recruited abroad, is of itself an expensive item. The buildings almost everywhere are good, built expressly for the purposes of the college, and furnished in a modern manner. In some the classrooms and principal laboratories are grouped in a single large structure; in others each department has its own pavilion. Some of the large buildings are palatial in appearance. The new central hall of the agricultural faculty of the University of La Plata is a handsome and commodious building, as it stands to-day, while a large addition yet remains unfinished. The school at Montevideo occupies a building completed only three years ago, which is a model of elegance in its appearance and is admirably arranged for class and laboratory work. The school at Piracicaba in Brazil is a veritable paradise, where the large central building with two long unconnected lateral structures faces a park comprising a hundred acres, filled with such a variety and luxuriance of trees, shrubs, and flowers as only a tropical landscape can produce. Likewise the school at Lima is beautifully located, with adequate buildings for the school work proper and four special laboratory pavilions for the use of the experimental staff. At Buenos Aires the school is located in the suburbs, on the level pampa in the midst of fertile fields. The buildings are all pavilions, a half dozen in number, and each designed for a special department. The Agricultural Institute of Chile has never had a building of its own, but it has enjoyed fairly adequate quarters in one wing of the Natural History Museum. Immediately in the rear is the experiment station and near by is the Practical School of Agriculture. Plans have been perfected whereby the institute will have in the near future other and more commodious buildings.

In the matter of equipment, the different States have exhibited great liberality. Nearly every school possesses a large farm well provided with buildings, machinery, and live stock. Laboratories are sufficient for the needs of instruction, and also of experimentation when this function has been combined with the duties of instruction.

A few figures may not be amiss to prove the solicitude shown everywhere for this form of education. The annual budget of the school at Lima is upward of $50,000, which is double the amount allotted in 1902; the buildings cost $150,000. The budget of the Bolivian school is $10,000; that of the Chilean institute, $20,000. This relatively small amount in the latter case is due to the fact that it includes the teaching staff only. The experimental station is a different organization, and so is the practical school of agriculture, although both institutions are located in the Quinta Normal with the agricultural college. In 1911 the University of Buenos Aires allotted to its faculty of agriculture and veterinary science the sum of $180,000. The faculty of the University of La Plata received an even greater sum, and, in addition, the Government appropriated $120,000 for new buildings. Uruguay spent in the years 1906–1908 a quarter of a million in buildings and equipment for her agricultural college, and is now erecting a new plant for the school of veterinary science, which will cost a like sum. The State of Sao Paulo in Brazil appropriates annually more than $300.000 for the support of agricultural instruction and experimentation, and of this the college at Piracicaba receives from seventy-five to one hundred thousand. In the year that agricultural education in Mexico was reorganized, $125,000 was spent in buildings, repairs, and apparatus. The University of Habana has recently erected a handsome building for its department of agriculture.

Dissimilarities in organization.—The organization of the agricultural college in its relation to the entire State educational system presents some variations. In Argentina it forms, together with the school of veterinary science, a faculty of the university and offers two parallel courses, one in agriculture and one in veterinary science. The same organization was effected in Uruguay, but after two years the schools were separated from the university and each erected into a separate institution. In their new locations they are widely separated from each other. In Bolivia both schools are united in the same organization, but have no organic connection with other departments of higher education. A similar organization prevails in Mexico. In Brazil, Chile, and Peru practical courses in veterinary medicine are included in the agricultural college.

In the matter of experimentation also there is dissimilarity. Some, by reason of their charters, are experiment stations at the same time that they are schools, and the two functions are carried on with the same equipment and by the same personnel; others are distinctly teaching schools in which experimentation is only incidental. Most States founded experiment stations before agricultural schools, and the experiment station frequently remains distinct from the college. It is usually administered by foreigners, contracted for abroad for this particular activity.

Admission requirements.—The usual scholastic requirement for admission to the agricultural college is the certificate of having completed the regular secondary education or an examination covering equivalent studies. Certain States grant scholarships of sufficient value to cover practically all the expenses of the student. In such cases the examination is presumably competitive. In a few colleges the students, both State scholars and students who pay, room and board in the institution, but more usually the college is a day school only. Providing a college home and granting scholarships have come about because of the earnest desire of the States to encourage agricultural studies.

Curriculum.—The course of study almost uniformly covers four years. Not infrequently the first year is a preparatory course, comprising general scientific and mathematical studies, but without technical branches. The curricula given below are typical and show the range of studies and the order in which they are presented. The regular curriculum of Piracicaba is preceded by a "preliminary course" of one year, embracing the following subjects: Portuguese, French, arithmetic, elementary algebra, geography, history of Brazil, geometry, shop and field work. This school divides its year into semesters, and the subject matter is more subdivided. The student carries fewer subjects at a time, concentrates his attention, and changes many classes each semester. In accordance with Brazilian law, military training is given throughout the four years. With this explanation, the insertion of the preliminary year in the table of studies is unnecessary. It will be observed that two schools combine with agriculture practical studies in veterinary science. The college of Montevideo is strictly agricultural, since the State maintains a separate college of veterinary medicine. The same division of studies is observed at La Plata, Buenos Aires, Mexico, and in the Bolivian college at Cochabamba. The great stock-raising countries very naturally give particular attention to veterinary science, while in the others it is subordinate to general agriculture.

TYPICAL CURRICULA OF AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

Montevideo.	*Santiago de Chile.*	*Piracicaba (Brazil).*
FIRST YEAR.		
Meteorology Chemistry Botany Anatomy and physiology Geology and mineralogy General zoology Mathematics and surveying Drawing	Physics Chemistry Agricultural botany Arithmetic and algebra Geology and mineralogy Agricultural zoology Geometry and trigonometry Drawing	(First semester.) Elementary physics and mechanics Algebra and geometry General chemistry and mineralogy Botany Zoology (domestic animals) Animal anatomy and physiology Drawing Practical field work (Second semester.) Hydrostatics and hydrodynamics Geometry and trigonometry Organic chemistry Plant physiology Domestic animals Drawing and carpentry Practical field work
SECOND YEAR.		
Agriculture Zootechnics Rural economy Hygiene and prophylaxis Technology Mechanics Viticulture	General agriculture Arboriculture and horticulture Agricultural entomology Plant physiology Animal anatomy Zootechnics Topography Organic chemistry Agriculture Drawing	(First semester.) Light, heat, and sound Analytical and agricultural chemistry Microbiology Agricultural geology and soil preparation Stock breeding Surveying (Second semester.) Electricity and climatology Analytical and agricultural chemistry Phytopathology and entomology Soil preparation and crops Zootechnics (special) Surveying
THIRD YEAR.		
Agriculture Analytical chemistry Geology and related sciences Rural engineering Applied zoology Arboriculture Drawing and rural architecture	Agriculture Viticulture Plant pathology Rural legislation General zootechnics Political economy Agricultural technology Hydraulics and rural constructions Veterinary clinics Applied hygiene	(First semester.) Agricultural industries Farm machinery Stock feeding and poultry raising Horticulture and fruit raising Agricultural mechanics Political economy (Second semester.) Agricultural industries Forestry Rural economy Zootechnics (special and veterinary) Practical horticulture Apiculture Rural constructions (roads, drains, etc.) Practical work on the farm and in creamery
FOURTH YEAR.		
Agricultural chemistry Microbiology and phytopathology Rural economy Zootechnics Agricultural mechanics Rural legislation Technology	Zootechnics (special) Rural economy and statistics Mechanics Hydraulics and constructions Applied analytical chemistry Agricultural technology Forestry	

Two grades of titles.—Frequently the course of study is divided into two parts. On the completion of the first, which usually comprises two or three years, the student receives the certificate of skilled agriculturist (agronomo perito). If he continues and completes the entire curriculum he becomes an agricultural engineer (ingeniero agronomo). Some schools do not grant the final degree until the candidate has spent at least one year in the practice of his profession, during which time he prepares an original scientific paper in some special field of agricultural investigation.

The agricultural career.—Many students, even among the State scholars, do not study with the intention of devoting themselves entirely to agriculture as a profession. As has been remarked in preceding paragraphs, scientific, practical studies are not the most highly esteemed. An agricultural graduate is easily diverted from the vocation of agriculture and is drawn off into political life or into governmental bureaucracy. This is all the more common, since the patronage of the agricultural college comes not so much from families of practical farmers as from the wealthy planters who give little personal attention to the management of their estates, but intrust them to a hired steward (major-domo). These families have long furnished the political leaders of the country, and it is but natural that the sons, no matter whether their studies have been in law, agriculture, engineering, or even medicine, should maintain the family tradition and drift into politics. This condition is, however, slowly disappearing. The agricultural college is beginning to appeal to a class of young men who study with the firm intention of following the profession. When they do not possess an independent fortune permitting them to engage in agriculture on their own account, they seek employment on the large estates as managers, become teachers in the "practical agricultural schools," or investigators in the experiment stations.

Primary agricultural schools.—Besides the agricultural college, which is a school of university rank, there exists in Latin America another type of agricultural instruction of a lower grade called the *escuela praotica de agricultura.* In some countries it was the first type of agricultural instruction introduced and preceded the college; in others it was established at the same time and placed alongside the higher institution. In many ways the two schools mark the sharp distinctions that exist in the Latin-American social structure. The college is for the sons of gentlemen whose social position calls for a university education, which may be taken in an agricultural college, providing it is of university grade. The practical school, on the other hand, is for the sons of the less fortunate, and is a school of a lower grade both scholastically and socially.

A. AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL, PIRACICABA, BRAZIL.

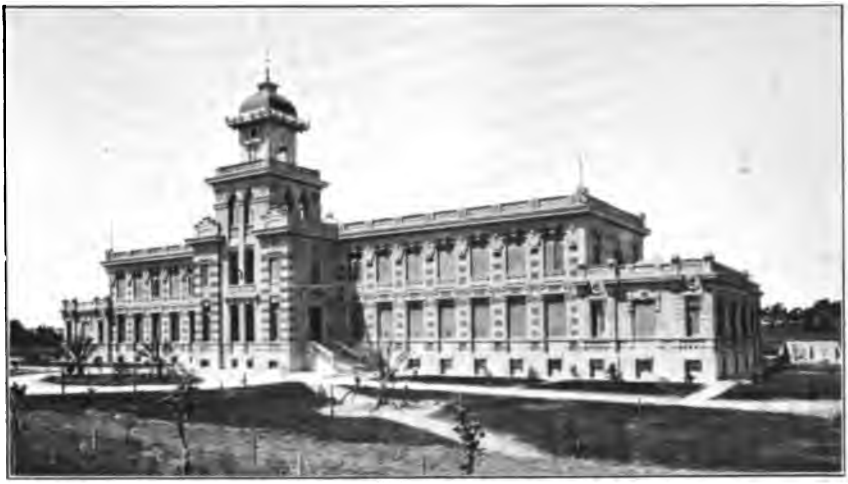
B. GENERAL BITTENCOURT INSTITUTE, PARA, BRAZIL.

A. GAME OF SOCCER AT THE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, PIRACICABA, BRAZIL.

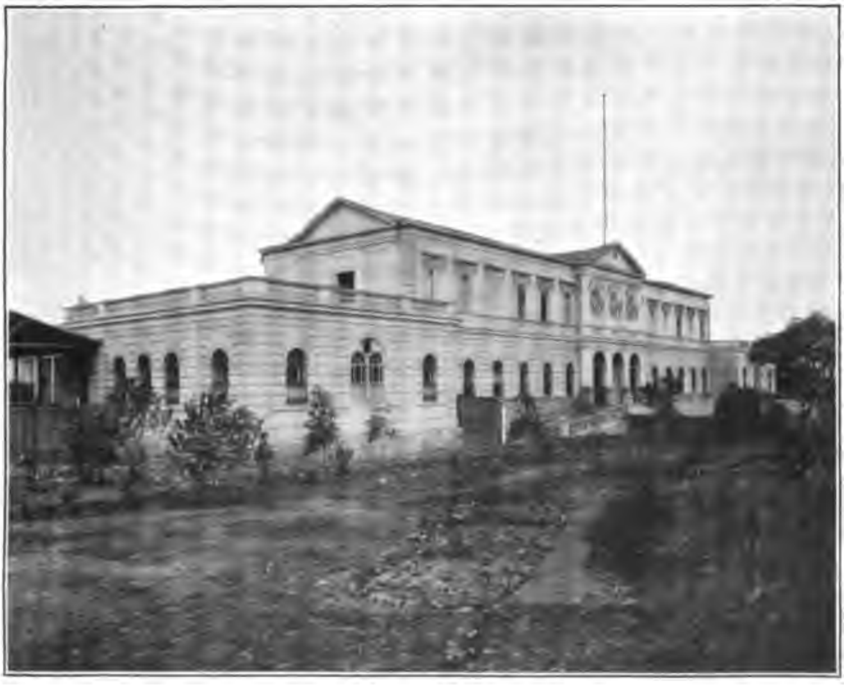
B. BOTANICAL LABORATORY IN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, PIRACICABA, BRAZIL.

A. FAÇADE OF THE RECITATION HALL OF THE INDIAN SCHOOL AT LA PAZ.

B. A GROUP OF PUPILS OF THE SAME SCHOOL.



A. AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL, SAYAGO, URUGUAY.



B. SCHOOL OF ARTS AND TRADES, LIMA, PERU.

Number of schools.—The practical schools are not limited in number as are the agricultural colleges. In those countries that have made or are making the greatest strides in agriculture they are very numerous. Chile has seven; Argentina, three special and nine general schools, with six others in process of organization. In addition many Provinces in Argentina maintain their own local schools. In the Brazilian Federation at least seven States have one or more each; the State of Sao Paulo has no less than four. Many States maintain also model farms. The Federal Government grants a subsidy to every State or municipality that maintains an experiment or zootechnic station. In the reorganization of its agricultural education in 1907 Mexico adopted the policy of founding many regional schools of practical agriculture. Cuba has undertaken to maintain a school farm (granja escuela) in each of her six Provinces. Peru has a practical school in connection with the agricultural college at Lima, and three others in the Provinces.

The advantage of this type of agricultural instruction is beyond all question, and many of the schools are doing a very valuable work. There is, however, a tendency in some countries to increase the number beyond reasonable bounds and to establish them faster than they can be properly equipped. As can be readily imagined, political reasons are often the cause. It is a school for the sons of "the people," and each representative wants one for his district.

Physical equipment.—The plant and equipment of the practical school is simple and modest, as indeed it should be. Nowhere is there the magnificence, the palatial buildings, and abundance of scientific apparatus so often noticeable in the agricultural college. The farm is of varying size, but always ample. Only the staple crops of the region in which the school is located are cultivated. Some schools may almost be said to devote themselves to a single specialty, such as viticulture, grains, horticulture, or stock raising, and forage products. The buildings consist of the necessary farm structures, a principal's home, and a central edifice containing the offices, classrooms, dormitories, dining hall, and culinary department; for it is a boarding school in which the great majority of the pupils are State scholars, selected from the different administrative districts of the territory which the institution serves. The boys are sons of the managers and overseers of the large estates or of the smaller farmers. The last-named class is much the smaller, since unfortunately the small landowner, cultivating his farm with his own hands, is the exception in most parts of Latin America. Large estates supervised by overseers are the rule. The furniture and equipment of the classroom, dormitories, and culinary department are always simple, sometimes even crude. A part of the products of garden and farm is used in the school; the rest is sold. When the management is good a considerable part of the expenses of the institution, including the *pension* of the students and resident teachers, can be met by the products of the farm.

Course of study.—The curriculum is simple and is designed to be especially practical. It comprises two or three years. Sometimes a preparatory year is prefixed; in other schools a deficient pupil is required to repeat the first year. Nothing is required for admission beyond elementary instruction, which is usually interpreted to mean only reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic. In some schools which are not in themselves special a pupil may remain a year after finishing the regular course in order to perfect himself in some specialty. During this year his work is wholly practical. The two curricula here reproduced—Santa Catilina in Argentina and Santiago de Chile—represent the highest type of the practical school of agriculture. The former is a dependency of the University of La Plata and is not far from Buenos Aires. Smaller provincial schools would show lower entrance requirements and less advanced studies in the last year. In the Chilean curriculum the hours of theoretic instruction only are indicated, but the time devoted to practical field work can be estimated as much the same as in the Argentine school. The term of the Chilean institution comprises three and one-half years; the last semester, which is not reproduced here, is for the most part a continuation of the technical studies begun in the third year, with the addition of zootechnics and further studies in practical veterinary science.

CURRICULA OF PRACTICAL SCHOOLS OF AGRICULTURE.

FIRST YEAR.

Santa Catalina.	Hours per week.	*Santiago de Chile.*	Hours per week.
Applied arithmetic and geometry	3	Mathematics	3
Elements of natural sciences	4	Spanish	3
Elements of physics	2	Gymuastic exercises	2
Spanish	2	Religion	1
Drawing	2	Elements of physics	1
Laboratory and field work	27	Commercial arithmetic	2
		Drawing	3
		Foreign language	3
		Zootechnics	4
		Practical veterinary science	3

SECOND YEAR.

Santa Catalina.	Hours per week.	*Santiago de Chile.*	Hours per week.
Agriculture	3	Mathematics	3
Elements of chemistry	2	Spanish	3
Elements of practical zootechnics	3	Gymnastic exercises	2
Orchard and garden products	2	Religion	1
Arboriculture	3	Elements of hygiene	1
Aviculture apiculture, and sericulture	2	Chemistry	2
Drawing	2	Accounts	2
Laboratory and field work	27	Drawing	1
		Foreign language	3
		Climatology	2
		Arboriculture and horticulture	3
		Practical agriculture	2

THIRD YEAR.

Agriculture	2
Rural industries	3
Rural constructions and machines	2
Accounts and rural economy	2
Elements of practical veterinary science	2
Elements of agricultural chemistry	2
Drawing	2
Laboratory and field work	27
Mathematics	2
Spanish	2
Gymnastic exercises	2
Religion	1
Accounts	2
Nivellization and rural constructions	2
Drawing	1
Foreign language	3
Plant pathology	3
Viticulture	3
Wine making	3
Agricultural machines	3

Other types.—The provincial agricultural institutes in both Argentina and Chile, as well as those in other countries, are much more elementary in character than those whose curricula have been given. In Argentina, where there are two types of primary agricultural education, the general and the special, the elementary and practical character of the former is especially marked. Theoretical instruction is limited to six hours per week. The rest of the student's time is spent in work in field and garden. The special schools, on the other hand, give considerable time to class and laboratory work. They are three in number—Cordoba, for agriculture and stock raising; Mendoza, for viticulture; and Tucuman, with two distinct specialties, arboriculture and the sugar industry. Each of these institutions has a three-year course in addition to a preparatory year, and the curriculum includes such general scientific studies as physics, chemistry, botany, geology, bacteriology, plant pathology, etc., besides courses in drawing, mathematics, and French. Entrance requirements are also greater than in the other class of schools and presuppose the entire elementary school curriculum. In fact, these special schools are but a reduced model of the agricultural college, with all the practical and much of the theoretical work directed toward a single specialization.

Indian schools.—In those countries in which the native Indian race still forms a very considerable portion of the population, the practical agricultural school assumes a different organization, in which agricultural training is only an incident—important, it is true, but after all, only an incident—in the general plan of instruction. The Indian is notably conservative. He clings conscientiously to the customs of his ancestors. He not only spurns the intellectual civilization of the white race, but he prefers his own traditional methods of agriculture and industry. In the few countries in which he has remained dominant he cultivates the soil with the same crude implements and according to the same primitive methods that were in vogue at the time of the conquest. He has adopted no new industries, and what renders his assimilation still more difficult is the fact that he often retains his native dialect, and learns and uses Spanish only when circumstances actually force him to make this concession.

In recent years a heroic effort has been made in States like Bolivia and Guatemala to penetrate this crust of Indian conservatism and to bring the native population into touch with modern civilization by the establishment of special Indian schools, called Escuelas de Indigenas. The object of these institutions is threefold—to teach the national language, to create a class of artisans, and to inculate modern methods of agriculture, with the idea that the pupils will become in their native villages schoolmasters and missionaries of modern civilization.

The studies of the school correspond to the triple purpose of the institution. Primary subjects are taught more for the purpose of teaching Spanish than for the subjects themselves. Great emphasis is laid on manual training and elementary agriculture. The curriculum extends over three or four years. The pupils are State scholars and live in the school. This enforced separation from their families and Indian life, together with the constant association with the white man's civilization, is a necessary part of the system. By these means it is hoped to teach him the language and to convince him that there are more efficient methods of agriculture and industry than those in vogue in his native village.

An agricultural normal school.—Another form of systematic practical instruction in agriculture is the new type of normal school evolved in Argentina for the training of teachers for the rural schools. This school has already been described in detail in the chapter on normal education, and is mentioned here only for the sake of completeness and to emphasize its importance as an agency for the dissemination of scientific agricultural knowledge. The introduction of elementary agriculture into the rural school program is favored everywhere. The usefulness of the study depends almost entirely on the character of the instruction, and requires of the rural teacher a very different preparation from what he has hitherto received. The special normal school, founded by the Province of Parana, is becoming a model for other provinces of Argentina, and is a distinct advance in general agricultural education, as it prepares teachers who can make the elementary agricultural program of the rural school a vital part of the system and not a mere incident.

CHAPTER XIII.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Interest in industrial education has increased steadily in Latin America during the past thirty or forty years. In the higher forms this has been evidenced by the change, in name or in fact, of the *Facultad de ciencias exactas* into the school of engineering; in the lower forms by the establishment and constant improvement of State-supported trade schools. If their success has not been uniform, it is not due to lack of governmental encouragement, but rather to the peculiar and often unpropitious conditions with which they had to contend. In both faculties and lower schools the first directors and professors were very commonly foreigners. As it was a new type of instruction, it was felt that local talent was neither sufficiently expert nor properly cognizant of the aims and methods of this class of schools, and Europe was called upon for skilled men to introduce and develop the purely technical branches of the new education. The foreigner always labors at a disadvantage. The language is at first a serious handicap, but much more serious is his ignorance of local conditions, habits of thought, hereditary prejudice, and public sentiment. In this particular instance he was at the additional disadvantage of being called to organize and further a type of studies generally regarded as menial by those who laid claim to social or intellectual distinction. In many cases, too, the time was not ripe for the introduction of the industrial school.

Progress in industrial education.—Hampered as it was by traditional prejudices in education and by an insufficient demand for its product, industrial education in Latin America has prospered very unequally. In those countries where industrial progress has been most marked the industrial schools, high and low, have come into public favor and have taken high rank.

In the University of Buenos Aires the engineering school enrolls annually eight or nine hundred students, and in numbers is now third in the university faculties. The engineering schools of Santiago, Montevideo, Lima, and Sao Paulo show a proportionate increase in students and a growing prominence as compared with the other professional faculties.[1]

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[1] For detailed information concerning engineering schools, their courses of study, equipment, etc., the reader is referred to Chapter VIII, where they are considered as a part of the university system.

Elementary industrial schools.—This chapter is primarily concerned with the lower forms of industrial education. Such institutions are to be found not only in the capitals and larger cities, but in many smaller towns as well. Particularly is this true of the more industrial nations, and if perchance the State or local government has not established the school, the field is often occupied by the teaching orders, especially by the Salesian Brothers, who make a specialty of agricultural, industrial, commercial, and the more practical types of education. The State industrial school for boys is most commonly designated as *La escuela de artes y oficios;* and the type of organization varies but little, except that in some countries it is in whole or in part a boarding school, in others a day school only. Instruction everywhere is practically free. Even the materials used in the workshops are furnished by the Government, which, however, is reimbursed, in part at least, for this outlay from the sale of manufactured articles. In addition, the State offers a certain number of scholarships to poor boys. In the boarding schools these are given in the form of board and lodging in the school itself. Almost everywhere the industrial school is well equipped in the matter of buildings. The very nature of the institution, with its laboratory instruction, necessitates special buildings; and while primary, secondary, or even higher schools may be lodged in remodeled houses, *La escuela de artes y oficios* usually has the honor and advantage of possessing its own building, designed especially for its peculiar needs and uses.

In some places the industrial school was originally established as a penal institution for boys—a reform school; but this type has now disappeared. The industrial feature may be continued in penal institutions, but the *escuela de artes y oficios* is simply a school and nothing more.

In grade it corresponds to the upper classes of the primary school. Pupils are expected to be able to read, write, and perform the simple operations of arithmetic before being admitted, but as industrial training is the principal feature of the school boys are frequently received who are deficient in the common branches and special classes are formed for them. Instruction in nontechnical studies is given throughout the entire course and includes the mother tongue, geography, local history, and arithmetic. A prominent subject is drawing, both free-hand and mechanical, but this becomes almost technical on account of its immediate application to the trades. The length of the course of study varies but slightly in different countries, the extremes being three and five years. One-half the day is devoted to the primary academic studies mentioned above and the other half to work in the shop.

Training for the trades.—Notwithstanding the time given to academic branches, *La escuela de artes y oficios* is in its organization and purpose a trades school and not a manual training school. Shopwork is not arranged to afford a comprehensive view of the manual arts or to give a general training. It is specialized from the very first, and the pupil is assigned immediately to the acquisition of a certain trade. Later he may pass to another shop and acquire an allied trade. The number and class of handicrafts vary according to the importance of the school and the character of local industries. All schools teach carpentry, tailoring, shoemaking, blacksmithing, and furniture making; the more pretentious may include engraving, electrical construction, machinery, and industrial chemistry. A great many teach printing and bookbinding, and some of these shops are in reality Government printing offices from which are issued a considerable part of the State publications. The furniture shop is also utilized for the manufacture of school desks and office equipment for other State institutions.

Equipment.—The shops are usually well supplied with machinery and tools; in some the equipment exceeds even the needs of the institution. Organically the shops are the central feature of the industrial school and shop practice the chief business of the pupils. Some industrial schools, however, have deviated from their original purpose and have assumed the character of engineering schools or elementary academies of fine arts, although the pupils, on account of their meager preparation, were not well fitted for such studies.

Students.—The patronage of the *escuela de artes y oficios* comes entirely from the artisan classes of society. The strong social distinctions that exist everywhere in Latin America separate sharply manual from other vocations, and in those countries where modern industrialism has made the least inroads the skilled mechanic enjoys little, if any, social advantage over the common workman. This condition of affairs explains the fact that many pupils discontinue their trades, and, taking advantage of the academic instruction received in the schools, adopt some other occupation, preferring humble clerical posts to more lucrative positions in the trades. This is a condition that will disappear in time, and it has already partially disappeared from those districts where industrial activities have become prominent.

The school at Santiago de Chile.—The central industrial school of Chile, located at the capital, and the chain of Federal institutions in the larger cities of Argentina are of a distinctly higher type. The school of Santiago bears the same common name, but its equipment and instruction are much superior to those of the ordinary *escuela de artes y oficios.* It comprises under one management two separate divisions—the day school and the boarding school; the former of two years, the latter of three and four. The two institutions have separate classrooms and are entirely segregated. Only the shops are common to both divisions, but even here the pupils never meet, since one section uses the shops in the forenoon and the other in the afternoon. The character of the divisions is quite different. The day pupils are distinctly trades pupils. They come from artisan families, and their object is solely to learn more or less thoroughly a single trade. They very rarely complete the entire course, but leave the school as soon as they can profitably enter upon their vocation. This section corresponds closely to the ordinary industrial school as described in preceding paragraphs.

The other section constitutes the real school, an institution higher in rank than the *escuela de artes y oficios*, and lower than the engineering school. It might be termed a practical school of engineering of the second grade. The pupils are State scholars, drawn from all Provinces in proportion to the population, and selected through a modified form of competitive examination. They must have completed the full course of elementary instruction, or its equivalent, and their preparation at entrance is therefore much in advance of that of pupils in the day section or of those in the provinicial industrial schools. During their residence they are under strict, almost military, discipline, and their energies and attention are directed steadily to the work of the school. In fact, they are civilian soldiers preparing for posts of responsibility in the national railways and other State-controlled industries. While great numbers of the graduates are absorbed by governmental activities, they are free to enter private industries. The only obligation assumed at the time of accepting the State scholarship is to continue their studies throughout the entire course of three and four years. If for any reason they do not, the State must be reimbursed by the student or his bondsman. The division of the course into three and four years is effected in a unique and interesting fashion. During the first year the studies and shopwork are the same for all pupils. At the end of this period the most apt are put into a section that continues its studies for three years more, of which the last is devoted to real engineering subjects of an elementary and essentially practical nature. The less proficient pupils are restricted to a shorter course which excludes technical studies and prepares especially for certain trades. Both sections, however, pass through the wood and iron working shops, and thus secure a more general manual training than that offered in the strictly trade school.

Curriculum.—The academic studies of the first year are elementary, comprising commercial arithmetic, Spanish, penmanship, and drawing. The four-year course continues as follows: Second year, elementary algebra and geometry, drawing, hygiene, and English; third year, descriptive geometry, mechanics and graphical statics, machine design, elements of industrial physics, chemistry, and English;

fourth year, mechanics and graphical statics, machine construction, machine design, elements of resistance of materials, and English.

Shop practice in the first year is in wood; in the second, forging and foundry; in the third and fourth, mechanical and electrical.

The three-year students pursue practically the same academic studies, with the exception of those of the fourth year English and mechanics, and their shopwork does not include mechanics.

Pupils in the day section spend seven hours daily in the school, four in elementary academic studies and three in the shops. They have the opportunity of learning any one of a half dozen mechanical trades.

History.—The institution at Santiago has had a long and honorable history, and to it is due in no small measure the industrial progress of Chile. It was established in 1849 and began with 24 pupils. At present there are 300 State scholars in the three and four year courses and 100 in the two-year day-school course. The buildings are valued at $175,000 and the shop equipment at $75,000. In different local and international expositions the school has received 22 medals and 36 diplomas of merit. Besides the usual wood and iron working shops, it maintains others for boiler making, bronze work, electricity, and mechanics.

Industrial education in Argentina.—Argentina has planned to found and equip high-grade industrial schools in all the great centers. Already five such schools have been established—one each in the following cities: Buenos Aires, Rosario, Santa Fe, La Plata, and Salta. The institutions all bear the name of Escuela Industrial de la Nación, indicating that they are creations of the Federal Government and independent of the Province in which they may be located. As a result of their national character they are of uniform grade, although they may specialize in the industries most important to the locality. Entrance requirements, the academic branches of the curricula, and the length of term are uniform. Several parallel courses of study are offered, the number varying with the size and resources of the school. The institution at the capital offers four—general mechanics, electricity, industrial chemistry, and general industry. Below is given the curriculum and distribution of hours for each of the six years of the course in general mechanics. The other courses are of equal length and contain an equal amount of practical work.

Curriculum of industrial schools of Argentina.

Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.					
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.	Sixth year.
Mother tongue	3	3				
Penmanship	3					
French, English, German, or Italian	4	4				
History and geography	3	3				
Natural science	2	2	2			
Free-hand drawing	3	3	4	4		
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	
Geometrical drawing and descriptive geometry		3	4	4		
Machine designs					6	6
Chemical technology					3	
Physics				3		
Graphical statics and resistance of materials			3	4		
Mechanics and applied kinematics				3	2	
Machinery					3	3
Constructions						4
Hydraulics					2	
Electrotechnics					3	3
Heat and its applications to industry				2	2	
Photography						2
Bookkeeping			3			
Commercial law and industrial legislation						2
Mechanical and metallurgical technology					3	1
Carrying machinery, cranes, etc					4	
Hydraulic machinery						3
Gas motors and steam engines						6
Shopwork	12	12	11	10	8	8
Total	36	36	36	36	42	41

The studies in all courses are practically uniform during the first three years, and not only is this true of the academic portion of the curriculum but also of the practical exercises. Regular progressive shopwork in wood and iron precedes specialization. This policy determines the character of the institution and makes it, like the Chilean school at Santiago, a type of practical engineering college. In fact, a graduate of the school may enter the second year of a faculty of engineering. In the smaller schools, that can not offer as many specialties, the uniform course may extend over as many as four years. The foreign language elected is usually French, on account of its ease for a pupil whose mother tongue is Spanish and on account of the greater proficiency that can be acquired in a given time.

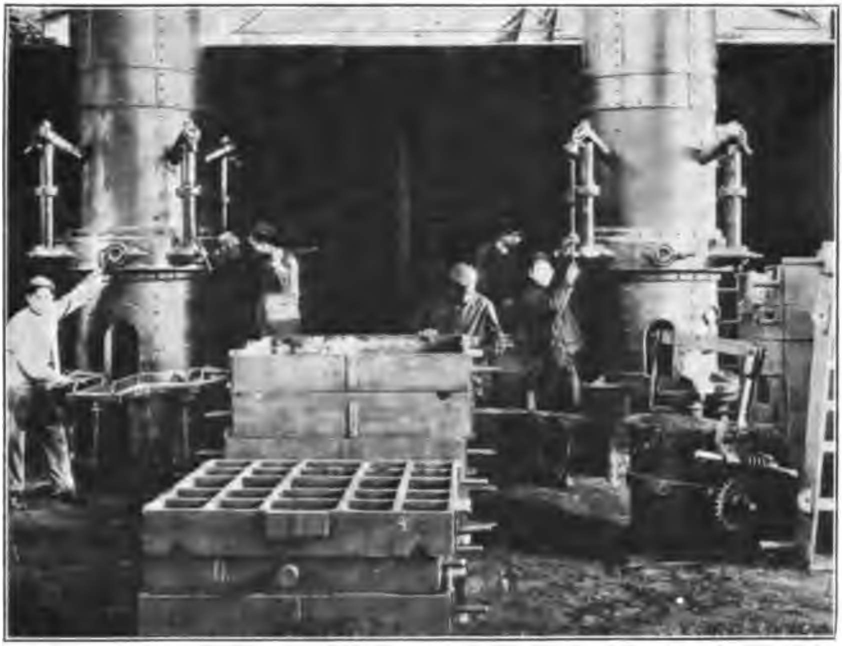
Tuition fees and scholarships.—Instruction is not entirely gratuitous, but the fees are so small as to be merely nominal. It is an educational policy in Argentina to impose a trifling tuition charge in all schools, even in the primary, where attendance is compulsory. It is argued that the amount is so small that it never constitutes a hardship, but that, small as it is, it makes both pupil and parent feel a greater interest in the school. Even a small contribution creates a sense of ownership, a desire to promote the prosperity of the institution, and a determination to profit by the outlay.

Another national educational policy in Argentina forbids a boarding department in State schools of any grade. The industrial schools are therefore day schools only, and there are no national scholarships.

A. INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, ROSARIO, ARGENTINA.

B. NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA.

A. SCHOOL OF ARTS AND CRAFTS FOR GIRLS, LA SERENA, CHILE.



B. IRON FOUNDRY, SCHOOL OF ARTS AND TRADES, SANTIAGO, CHILE.

However, the Province in which the school is located sometimes grants to boys who live in other towns scholarships sufficient to cover actual living expenses.

Buildings and equipment.—While the curricula, entrance requirements, and policy of all the federal industrial schools are uniform, in material equipment they are at present very unequal. The school of Rosario occupies modest and totally inadequate buildings, originally constructed for other purposes. Congress has, however, voted funds for the erection of new and specially designed buildings, and in a year or two the present unfavorable conditions will be eliminated. In the matter of equipment also the smaller schools suffer in comparison with the institution at the capital, and this is but a corollary to the inadequacy of buildings. Machinery and laboratories can not be installed when floor space is wanting, and the lack of proper buildings is an excuse for not providing funds for improvement of the shops. However, the smaller schools are steadily increasing their facilities and improving their work. The general policy of the federal schools is to be really practical in their training, and this policy is the more vigorously adhered to since the large central institution at the capital sets a standard of efficiency and methods to which all the others aspire. This prevents the more poorly equipped from lapsing into mere theoretical instruction. Good use is made of the facilities and equipment they possess, and, as the basic shopwork for all pupils is the same, better general training can be effected with meager facilities than if specialization came earlier.

The school at Buenos Aires.—In marked contrast to the limited facilities of the smaller schools are the magnificent quarters and thorough equipment of the great institution at the capital. Covering an entire block, three stories in front containing offices, classrooms, laboratories, and library, and one story in the rear occupied by the shops, the building is a splendid tribute to the spirit of modern industrialism which is pervading Argentina of to-day. Classrooms, laboratories, and shops are well equipped. Nearly all the furniture in the building was made in the shops, and much of the machinery was likewise constructed in the school.

Six hundred and sixty-five students were matriculated in 1911. The high standard required and the ease with which pupils with a modicum of industrial training can find ready employment in local industries tend to deplete the upper classes. Five-sixths of the entire enrollment is found in the first three years. Discipline both in class and shop is rigid. The laissez faire method of university life is not imitated here. Regular attendance is insisted upon. Written monthly examinations are given on all subjects, and these count equally with the final oral examination toward determining the student's annual classification. A certain unusual rule of administration is not without merit: A student who fails one year is not debarred from reenrollment, but must pay double fees.

The desire of the Government to encourage industrial education is proved by the liberal appropriations. In 1911 the five schools received $400,000, of which half went to the school of Buenos Aires.

Industrial schools for women.—Industrial education for women is also widespread in Latin America. Besides the regular industrial schools, instruction in household arts is given in all good normal schools for girls, although in many, for lack of appliances, there are no practical courses in cooking. This feature of the normal school can not, however, be termed industrial education in the strictest sense, since it is designed solely for reproduction on a reduced scale in the primary grades. However, it is a powerful influence for the popularization of the importance of practical things in the life of women and for ennobling manual labor is general.

All the southern nations of South America, and some in the north and in Central America, have established special schools for the industrial education of girls. The Argentine Federal Government maintains no less than five in the national capital and five more in the Provinces. Some Provinces maintain schools of their own. In Chile 28 schools have been organized, besides the normal industrial institute at Santiago, which is at the head of the system and supplies teachers for the technical branches. The Chilean Government expends annually $200,000 on its industrial schools for girls. This form of education appeals also to private benefactions and to religious societies. In many States schools have been founded and are maintained by these agencies with the help of subsidies from the Government. The large number of industrial schools for girls, State and private, in many countries indicates that a decided social revolution is in progress in Latin America. The sphere of woman is no longer limited to her own household or to domestic service, which was for so long her traditional place in Latin civilization. In many countries of Latin America she has entered business and industrial occupations, not to the same extent, it is true, as in the United States, but in recent years the movement has been greatly accelerated.

Different types.—The industrial school for girls is known in different countries by different names, as *Escuela profesional de niñas*, or *de mujeres; Escuela de artes femeniles; Escuela practica de niñas.* The difference is not wholly one of name. There are two somewhat different types of institutions, and the same type in different countries is not always designated by the same name. In one the trades feature is especially emphasized; in the other a complete, rounded training in household arts is the aim. The one is a professional school for women; the other a girls' manual training school. The distinctive aims of the two types are not incompatible, although the spirit of the institutions may be quite different. Both offer opportunity for learning the most common trades, and both likewise afford a general training in household arts.

In the trades school the pupil enters at once upon the study of any one particular line of work which she may choose and for which she is prepared. Often she studies two allied trades. There is no fixed length of curriculum. When the student has mastered a trade she receives a certificate of competency. This may be won in a single year if the student is intelligent, quick to learn, and confines herself to a single subject. As it is more usual, however, to combine two allied trades, two and even three years may be necessary to win the certificate. The trades commonly taught are dressmaking, millinery, and tailoring. Practical cooking is offered wherever the State can be induced to furnish the necessary facilities.

The girls' manual training school, on the other hand, has a fixed curriculum covering usually three years, and the diploma is granted only to those pupils who complete the entire course. In other respects the two types of schools have much in common. The entrance requirements, as in the corresponding school for boys, include only the rudiments of a primary education. A minimum age of 14 years is another requirement. Primary studies are continued. Much attention is given to drawing and to composition in the mother tongue. The best schools always require that a design of the work be made before the task is undertaken, and that a full and careful written description of the process be prepared after its completion. A careful estimate is required of materials used and their cost, so that practical arithmetic is interwoven with handwork.

A very common adjunct to the industrial school for girls is a short commercial course, comprising commercial arithmetic, elements of bookkeeping, and typewriting.

Patronage of industrial schools.—Industrial schools are to be found only in the cities and larger towns where the industrial population is the greatest, but it would be a mistake to assume that all girls enter, or even study to enter, industrial pursuits; many study simply to become proficient in household arts. One problem of industrial education in Latin America is to induce girls of the poorest families to avail themselves of the opportunities offered. Most schools include in their curriculum personal and household hygiene which, with domestic economy as taught in connection with practical work in household arts, would be of incalculable value in the homes of the very poor. However, the great majority of matriculants come from families of artisans and small shopkeepers.

A unique institution.—An institution at Santiago which is directly connected with the departments of manual training and domestic science in the State system of education in Chile deserves special notice, not only because of the important functions it performs but also because it is unique in South America. Its official designation—

Escuela de Educación Fisica—conveys only an imperfect notion of its manifold activities. In reality it is four schools in one, containing the following departments: Physical culture, domestic science, manual training, and stenography. Instruction is also given in pedagogy and drawing, the latter for application in manual training and the former because the primary purpose of the institution is to prepare teachers in the various special branches for service in the State industrial, normal, and high schools.

The equipment of the institution is remarkably good in all departments: Roomy shops for wood and iron work, well-furnished kitchens with complete culinary apparatus, a large number of typewriters, splendid gymnasium with sufficient apparatus, and a complete set of instruments for physical measurements. The building is of recent construction and thoroughly adapted to the needs of instruction.

The institution was founded in 1906, and has been well patronized from its very inception. The average enrollment during the first year was 220. In 1911 it was 239, of whom 77 were men and 162 women. The school is almost of university grade. Matriculants must either have completed five years of the secondary school program or have graduated from a normal school.

A considerable number of students are teachers in the provincial schools who are granted leave of absence that they may take short, practical courses in their specialty. Vacation courses are also given for the same purpose. The utility of the institution to the State system of schools is unquestioned, and it is preparing an excellent corps of special teachers in domestic science, physical culture, and manual training. The policy of the school is intensive study and much practical application. The full course of study in each department extends over only two years with 14 and 15 hours per week. During the last year there is given a course in methods with practice lessons in order to prepare the student for teaching the particular subject.

Another unique type.—Rio de Janeiro possesses a school of arts and crafts which differs materially from the accepted type. It is not a State institution, but its public utility is recognized by the Government and it receives an annual subsidy. The association that maintains the school bears the name of La Sociedade Propagadora das Bellas Artes, and this fact in itself gives a hint as to the character of the institution. The school is known as the Lyceo de Artes e Oficios, but its province is not to teach the trades themselves, but rather to make workmen intelligent and efficient in general, and more skillful and artistic in their work. The school maintains no shops in the ordinary sense of the term, but its curriculum contains useful groups of studies for more than 50 callings and trades. A workman is expected to learn his trade through an apprenticeship outside the school. The latter merely aids by furnishing him the scientific knowledge and arousing artistic feeling. The curriculum comprises courses in applied sciences and in art. The former include arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, applied physics, chemistry, and mechanics; the artistic courses comprise drawing in all its forms, arithmetic, sculpture, painting, and engraving. Through a wise selection of subjects related to his particular vocation a workman can prepare himself to pursue his calling with intelligence, and in those vocations that admit the element of beauty, with artistic touch and appreciation. On the trades the influence of the school is supplementary only, not basic, except in so far as scientific knowledge is basic for all vocations. For architecture and the fine arts, the institution offers a complete education both scientific and practical. Classes for men are taught during the day and in the evening, but for women only during the day. The annual enrollment is large and indicates the popular character of the institution. During the year 1911 the matriculants numbered 2,487, of whom 1,987 were men and 500 women. This was an increase of 450 over the enrollment of the preceding year.

The society that maintains the school is unusually interesting in its history, organization, and methods, and is a fine example of what can be done in education by non-State and non-sectarian institutions in Latin America. It was founded toward the middle of the nineteenth century. Its present constitution recognizes eight classes of members. Ever since its organization the titular head has been the chief executive of the nation, and during all its history membership has been counted a signal honor. The great and wealthy have considered it a privilege to contribute to its support. Regular members pay an initiation fee and small monthly dues. These moneys, together with gifts, endowments, and the State subsidy, constitute the revenue of the society. The teaching staff is chosen from the membership. No salaries are paid the instructors, but they are exempt from the payment of dues, and through length and regularity of service rise to the position of honorary membership. In its origin the society clearly recognized the principle of cooperation in education; children of members paid no tuition, but the same privilege was later extended to other matriculants, so that now instruction is gratuitous for all.

The constitution of the society is not a model that could be generally copied. Local conditions and a certain social prestige acquired at its very foundation have no doubt contributed to its success, but the principle of private secular initiative which it embodies constitutes a pleasing variation in the general uniformity of State or religious organization of higher and special education in Latin America.

PART III. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

CHAPTER XIV.

COEDUCATION.

Tradition in Latin America was at one time wholly opposed to the coeducation of the sexes; indeed, it was very generally hostile to any education for girls, except the very imperfect type given in the old convents. The past half century, however, has produced remarkable changes in public opinion in this regard, and school customs of to-day, even in the most conservative countries, bear little resemblance to those of two generations ago. In the first place, the secular education of girls is everywhere recognized as a duty of the State, equally with that of boys. Nor is their schooling confined to the elementary grades; secondary education also, in some form, is provided for girls.

While it is universally admitted that the State's duty is to provide instruction for all the youth of the nation, without distinction of sex, the organization of schools in reference to the sexes and public sentiment in regard to coeducation are far from uniform. In general practice each sex has its own school, but the exceptions to the rule are very numerous and are often found where least expected.

In elementary schools the practice differs as between town and country. In the larger centers the sexes are usually grouped in separate schools from the very first, or, at least, after the primary grade. In towns the number of pupils and teachers permit segregation without any serious economic loss. In the hamlets, however, there are not always sufficient children to form two full parallel classes in all grades. Moreover, the village and rural schools are usually of an elementary character, comprising perhaps only three or four grades. They are, in fact, but primary schools, and the tender age of the pupils does not antagonize the general sentiment against coeducation. Besides, the economic and material difficulties of maintaining two parallel schools with a small enrollment would be insurmountable. Some States, however, forbid the enrollment in mixed classes of boys beyond a designated age, which varies from 10 to 12.

Some statistics will indicate the variance in custom that exists in different countries in regard to coeducation in public primary schools. The figures in the table are taken from the latest available reports, but are not all for the same year. Notwithstanding this disadvantage, they represent accurately the proportion of the various types in any one country and the wide divergence between different countries.

Coeducation.

Countries.	Schools for boys.	Schools for girls.	Number coeducational.	Total.
Ecuador	596	509	92	1,197
Salvador	203	200	83	486
Guatemala	521	464	283	1,258
Costa Rica	33	32	272	337
Uruguay	79	52	662	793
Mexico (Federal and State schools)	2,917	1,484	1,062	5,463
Mexico (local schools)	1,466	763	759	2,988
Chile (urban)	166	184	201	551
Chile (rural)	330	133	1,225	1,688
Argentina	442	287	4,140	4,869
Buenos Aires (city)	50	97	42	189
Buenos Aires (Province)	64	6	1,573	1,643
Province of Entre Rios, Argentina	15	4	341	360
Province of Santa Fe, Argentina	26	12	318	356

Even in the countries where the proportion of mixed schools is the largest coeducation is practiced chiefly in the country and villages. This is clearly shown in the statistics from Chile, where the schools are classified as urban or rural. Coeducation has acquired greater favor in Argentina than in any other nation, but even there the difference in custom between city and country is still marked, and in order to show this divergence figures are given separately for the capital alone and for several Provinces. The proportion also varies as between Provinces. In the Province of Santa Fe there is one city of two or three hundred thousand inhabitants and another of thirty or forty thousand. In this Province the proportion of mixed schools is far below the average. In the Province of Entre Rios there is only one large town, and, besides, the sentiment in favor of coeducation is very marked even in the town itself. The detailed statistics given below for Uruguay portray very accurately the prevailing custom throughout Latin America. The table shows the division of schools into rural, first class (3 or 4 grades), second class (4 or 5 grades), and third class (a complete elementary school). It also shows separately Montevideo (including city and Province) and the entire Republic. Argentina, Costa Rica, and some States of Mexico are the only parts of Latin America that would give statistics more favorable for coeducation in public elementary schools.

Coeducation in Uruguay.

	Schools for boys.	Schools for girls.	Mixed schools.	Total.
Montevideo.				
Rural	....	....	29	29
First class	....	....	16	16
Second class	18	1	20	39
Third class	1	1	....	2
Total schools	19	2	65	86
Uruguay (entire).				
Rural	5	5	554	564
First class	3	2	71	76
Second class	69	43	37	149
Third class	2	2	....	4
Total schools	79	52	662	793

In regular secondary instruction there is no coeducation, except in rare instances. The State maintains one set of liceos for boys and another for girls, although the course of study is practically the same in both. Economic reasons may, however, bring about a change in the policy. Already there are some signs of innovation. A few high schools in Argentina admit both sexes, and in Costa Rica girls who have completed the curriculum of the girls' high school, which is not so extensive as that of the boys', may continue their studies in the liceo. In some other places the same building is used for both sexes, but they are organized with different classes, and even the hours may be different, one sex in the forenoon, another in the afternoon.

In the universities.—The State universities are open to women, and in this grade of education the old traditions and prejudices against coeducation have broken down almost everywhere. It is true that women do not enroll in the schools of law and engineering, but they are at liberty to do so if they choose. In other faculties, however, they are present, even in the most conservative countries, and in many universities their number is very considerable. Wherever the faculty of letters has been retained there will be found some women matriculants, and where this faculty has become, either in name or in fact, a higher normal school the number of women students has increased from year to year, until now they constitute a decisive majority of the entire enrollment. This is the situation at present at Santiago, Buenos Aires, and La Plata, and so natural does it appear that it has ceased to cause comment. It is, however, in the medical faculty and in the related schools of pharmacy and dentistry that the presence of women is most marked. The actual number in this department exceeds that in the faculty of letters, but the proportion is not so great, since there is a much larger enrollment of men. The history of the admission of women into the university has been much the same in Spanish America as elsewhere. It was first a special privilege. The complete secularization of the universities prevented any discrimination; the institution was legally open to all. The number of women gradually increased. Their presence was at first a curiosity, but in time became a matter of indifference, and later an accepted fact. In its every phase the movement was prompted by economic motives only. There was no woman question involved. It was not from a desire to share men's education that the women came to the university. Certain vocations were opened to them through social and economic evolution, and they resorted to the university, since it was the only institution that afforded the opportunities of sufficient preparation.

Results.—It does not appear that the men students exhibited pronounced animosity to the enrollment of women in any of the university departments, nor does the presence of the latter seem to have given rise to special problems, either academic or social. The common report is that the young women have comported themselves with dignity and maintained the most natural relations of comradeship with their classmates. The same is true in the few institutions of secondary education where coeducation exists. After the first year of the experiment in the upper grades of the national high school of Costa Rica, the principal reported that the presence of the young women, instead of injecting new problems into the discipline of the school, had exercised a decidedly good effect.

An economic movement.—The large number of women students in certain departments of the universities is astonishing, considering the long tradition and pronounced prejudice against coeducation in general in Latin countries and the comparative rarity of the practice in higher elementary schools even to-day in Latin America. It should be noticed that the movement is, in one respect, quite different from that in North America. In the United States it is in the college of liberal arts that the enrollment of women has grown prodigiously during the last generation. The motive on the part of the majority is a desire for a higher general education without reference to its application to any particular vocation. In Latin America, on the other hand, it is the vocational departments that women have invaded. They study to be teachers, physicians, pharmacists, or dentists. If they were seeking a general literary education, they would enroll in the faculty of social and political sciences, which offers more cultural studies than any other department of the university, but this is precisely where none are found. Their presence in such large numbers in the faculty of letters and philosophy in Santiago, Buenos Aires, and in the corresponding department of La Plata is because they can there prepare for teaching. In this case, as in the others, it is professional, not general, education that they seek.

In industrial schools.—The industrial schools are nowhere coeducational. The only exception is the Escuela de Educación Fiscia of Santiago, and this is explained by the fact that it is practically a normal school, preparing teachers for physical culture, manual training, and household arts for the various secondary, normal, and industrial schools of the nation. Even here the class and laboratory instruction is, in the very nature of the studies, separate for the two sexes.

In commercial schools.—Curiously enough, in commercial education, where one might expect more frequent instances of coeducation, it is not found except in Brazil, where organized, public commercial instruction has been less developed than in most countries. The school in Sao Paulo and one in Rio de Janeiro admit both sexes, and the latter has a relatively large enrollment of women. Another exception is the commercial section of the high school of San José, in Costa Rica; but the reason for the introduction of coeducation there was purely economic. The city is not large enough to warrant separate schools, with the additional expense of installation and equipment.

Coeducation in normal schools.—In normal education, except in the higher normal schools, as mentioned above, the sexes are usually educated and trained in separate institutions. Since normal schools are most often State boarding schools, coeducation is less feasible than in other institutions. Even in countries where the normal is a day school only, the general custom is to provide separate institutions for the sexes. However, the school of Rio de Janeiro is coeducational, and the Sao Paulo normal school has an evening course for young men. The single normal school as yet established in Bolivia, and located in the ancient and conservative city of Sucre, is also coeducational.

In Argentina the normal schools of the capital and larger provincial cities are for one sex only. Of the more than 60 normal schools supported by the Argentina National Government, 24 are for women and 34 for both sexes. There is no doubt that the coeducational normal schools in the Provinces are thoroughly successful, and in the towns in which they are located public sentiment is decidedly in their favor. Their establishment was due partly to reasons of public economy and partly to the preponderating influence of North Americans in this branch of public instruction at the time of its introduction. But notwithstanding its original impetus and its continued success where tried, the policy of coeducation in Argentina normal schools does not seem to have gained force. The two types will doubtless continue in much the same relative number as at present. The capital and larger cities are not likely to be soon won over to the coeducational normal school, especially when segregation is the rule in other forms of secondary instruction. However, the presence of young women in the universities and in the higher normal school of Buenos Aires may in time affect the general sentiment on this subject even in the large centers. At all events the coeducational normal schools in the Provinces have promoted the practice of coeducation in elementary schools—a practice much more common in Argentina than in other Latin-American countries.

CHAPTER XV.

ANCIENT LANGUAGES.

In general it may be stated that the study of ancient languages in Spanish America has been eliminated. The few exceptions, which will be considered later, do no more than emphasize the rule. At first thought it is a subject of wonder that nations whose common speech is descended in direct and unmixed line from the Latin, the great learned language of Europe during so many centuries, should have relinquished this together with the remote classic tongues of antiquity. One would suppose that racial pride, to say nothing of philological reasons, would have constrained the Neo-Latins of the New World to retain the subject very generally, and even to foster it more jealously than is done by Anglo-Saxon and Germanic nations. School tradition, too, should have aided the cause of Latin, to say nothing of Greek. Custom is almost as dominating in the school as in law and religion, and Iberian tradition was and continues to be strong in favor of the retention of the ancient classical languages. But notwithstanding reasons of kinship of speech, pride of race, and scholastic tradition, Latin, as well as Greek, has almost wholly disappeared from the curricula of South and Central American educational institutions.

One reason for the elimination of Latin is neither hard to find nor difficult to state. It is the antagonism, either open or latent, which exists almost everywhere between state and church. So self-explanatory is this reason that every intelligent Latin-American, when asked why Latin has been discarded in the schools, immediately and unhesitatingly offers this obvious explanation. Others there are, but this one is so patent that it is apparent to all.

Up to the time of their independence, Latin-American countries relied entirely on the church for the establishment and maintenance of schools. The local priest had oversight of the primary school, if there was one. Religious orders maintained institutions of secondary grade, and the colonial universities all owed their foundation to the church. In the struggle for independence, the clergy very generally favored the colonies, for it was not Spain the Catholic against which they first rebelled, but against Spain, the subject of Napoleon, the man who had despoiled the church and virtually imprisoned the Pope. The formation of the independent republics did not at first change the status of education. During the first decades of the new era the religious orders continued in charge of the schools, high and low, to the entire satisfaction of all concerned. The State willingly granted subsidies for their improvement and extension. But during the latter half of the nineteenth century conditions changed. The idea of secular education, which should be free to all and required of all developed in Latin America, as it had slowly developed in Latin Europe. Education by the state, for the state, without reference to the ecclesiastical organization or to specific religious instruction, was abhorrent to the tenets of the church, and it resisted to the full extent of its power, but in America, as in Europe, the state triumphed. Public secular primary schools were first established, then high schools, and the universities also were in time wholly secularized. This struggle long continued alienated and embittered the two powers, and the doctrine of complete separation of church and state gained added force. It is a bit fantastic that the animosity should be reflected in school curricula, but such proved to be the outcome. Since the state had undertaken public instruction, it must perforce make its schools popular. The church schools had remained classical and conservative. The state, in contrast, made its schools scientific and practical. Latin was the central, all-pervading feature of ecclesiastical education. In order to discredit this education, the study of Latin was decried. Latin was the official language of the church; to teach it in the secular school was almost like teaching an ecclesiastical subject. Again, if Latin were recognized as an important study, the state educator could not compete with the clerical, since the best Latinists were the clergy themselves and the members of the religious teaching orders, and to admit them into the secular teaching corps and to give Latin its pristine position in the rôle of education would be but to transform the new secular system into the old ecclesiastical school.

The outcome of the struggle was the entire elimination of Latin from State-supported and subsidized schools, and when it was no longer required, or even "credited," for the baccalaureate—a State-conferred degree—it naturally disappeared from the private schools as well. Latin is not included in the curricula of secondary schools, much less in primary, in any of the following countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Salvador, and Uruguay. Haiti and Colombia maintain two classes of secondary schools, the classical and the modern. In his last report the minister of public instruction of Colombia, although agreeing to the retention of the classical school, urges the further development of the modern. Some Venezuelan high schools offer courses in Latin, but the studies are elementary, embracing only the rudiments of the grammar and simple translation. In some countries it is positively forbidden by law to teach the subject in schools. Exception is always made of the *seminarios* for the education of priests. The disappearance of the classic language was not always effected without a contest. Aside from the clerical influence many educators trained under the old system recognized the value of the subject in any scheme of education and fought valiantly for its retention. Some States wavered in their policy; under one régime it was abolished; under another, restored; only to be cast out again when its opponents returned to power. Argentina fluctuated many years in her policy; Uruguay but recently discarded the subject.

In the universities there may be, and usually are, courses of lectures on the history of classic literatures, but these are given in the mother tongue and do not presuppose the reading of these literatures in the original by the students. In the Instituto Pedagogico of Chile, which, as stated above, is the only section of the faculty of letters yet organized, an elementary course of three years in Latin is required of those preparing to teach Spanish and French; but even here Latin is not taught for the sake of Latin, but as a suitable background for the scientific study of Spanish or French grammar. The same arrangement obtains in the faculty of philosophy in the University of Buenos Aires, which is also in fact, although not in name, a higher normal school. Elementary courses in Greek are also offered in the University of Buenos Aires.

In many institutions educators recognize the very great value of Latin in any extended study of Spanish, especially for future teachers of the mother tongue, and some attempt to evade the school regulation by introducing a short course in "linguistics," which in practice becomes a study of word formation and the morphology of Latin. But these studies are only primary; even those in the higher normal schools are exceedingly elementary and confined to small groups of students, so that the opening statement of this chapter that instruction in Latin had generally disappeared in Spanish America remains nevertheless true.

A reason other than the clerical has militated against Latin—a reason interwoven to a certain extent with the question of church and more difficult both of appreciation and expression, but none the less potent. The Spanish American has great admiration for and faith in the efficacy of all things modern. When he has applied to any object or idea the epithet of *moderno* he has expressed the highest possible appreciation. The latest ideas in philosophy, in sociology, in education find nowhere more ready and earnest disciples than in South America. This trait of character, joined with his confidence in the power of education to reform undesirable conditions and to advance the material and social status of the nations, makes him seek earnestly the most advanced theories. To him Latin was an antique, like the fine old massive furniture of his colonial ancestors which he is prone to discard in favor of the lighter and newer styles. Western Europe was developing certain types of education in which the classics were replaced by scientific studies. The Spanish-American argues that the school must regenerate the nation, advance civilization, develop the material resources of the country, and bring it into touch with its most progressive neighbors. In order to perform this mission, it must use the most effective means. In this utilitarian theory Latin could not compete with sciences and modern languages, and it was forced to the wall.

The Portuguese branch of Latin America presents a notable exception in its treatment of the classics. In the Brazilian secondary school curriculum, linguistic and humanistic subjects are prominent, and both Latin and Greek find a place. There is no election in the course and no alternate line of study; all pupils conform to the same curriculum and study the classics regardless of their inclination or purpose in life. To be sure the course is not extensive, only five hours per week of Latin and three of Greek in the last two years, but it must not be forgotten that a pupil to whom Portuguese is the mother tongue is capable of acquiring a considerable facility in Latin in a relatively short time. This course of study is not confined to the few principal city high schools of Brazil, but is found also in the smaller towns, since the law prior to 1911 set a standard and required all *colegios* to conform to the model of the large school at Rio de Janeiro in order to confer the degree of *bacharel.* No provision is made for advanced study of the classics outside the theological seminaries since, as noted in the chapter treating of universities, there exists in Brazil no faculties of philosophy and letters.

CHAPTER XVI.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

In Latin-American schools a very large and honorable place is accorded to the study of modern foreign languages. In Guatemala and Mexico such study is even introduced into the elementary grades. Fortunately this practice is exceptional. It is in the secondary and special schools that modern languages receive an attention that in comparison with North American practices seems excessive.

In secondary education.—In the regular secondary school (*liceo* or *colegio*) two languages are always taught, running usually through three or four years. Often a third is introduced in the last years. The following table conveys at a glance the languages offered in secondary schools in certain representative countries and the time given to each. The curriculum is uniform for all pupils, no election being permitted.

Modern languages in secondary schools.

Countries.	Languages.	Number of years.	Average hours per week.
Argentina	French	3	4
	English	4	3
	Italian	2	2
Chile	French	6	2
	English or German	6	3
Brazil	French	4	3
	English	4	3
	Italian or German	2	3
Peru	French and English	4	5
Costa Rica	English	5	4
	French	4	3
Panama	English	5	3
	French	4	2

In the university.—In the university proper no practical linguistic instruction is offered save in the teachers' colleges. The few faculties of letters that subsist may give lecture courses on the history and appreciation of modern literatures, but no lessons in the languages themselves. In the professional schools, however, especially in medicine and engineering, many of the texts used are in French or English. On account of the ease with which a Neo-Latin can read French, that language is preferred, and in medicine, pharmacy, mathematics, and general science the texts are almost wholly in French. The libraries in medical, scientific, and even in law schools contain more works in French than in all other languages combined. The utility of American and English treatises on subjects of practical engineering is everywhere recognized, and while many are used for reference few are adopted as texts. German is little studied, except in parts of Chile and in the German colonies of Brazil. German scholarship is appreciated, but only a small minority can profit by it at first-hand, and texts in German could very rarely be used. The very general use of French texts in the professional schools is a practical continuation of that language in the university. The same is true of English, but to an extent much less.

In normal schools.—The important position of modern languages in the regular secondary schools of Latin America is not so surprising when one remembers that Latin and Greek have been practically eliminated. Their prominence, however, in special schools is equally marked and is in direct contrast with North American practices. Foreign languages find no place in the ordinary American industrial or normal school. Even in commercial high schools they are not emphasized and are often taught in an impractical manner. In similar schools in Latin America these studies occupy a post of honor. In Chile the primary normal schools require one foreign language throughout the entire course of five years; in Argentina, one for three years, and in the supplementary course for preparing teachers of the normal school itself a second foreign tongue for two years; in Costa Rica, one for five years, another for four; in Brazil, three years of French, but in addition two or three years are required for entrance; in Guatemala, four years each of two languages; in Panama, English five years, French four years; in Salvador, two years each of two languages. In other countries the amount of time given to this subject in proportion to the entire normal course is much the same.

In other schools.—The industrial schools of Argentina require two years of a foreign language. In the Escuela de Artes y Oficios of Santiago de Chile English is required throughout three years. The same is true of the school at Lima. In the industrial school of Bogota both French and English are studied, but for a year only. At Mexico City the national industrial school, in a three-year course, requires either French or English during two years. Even some of the elementary schools of agriculture (*Las escuelas practicas de agricultura*) include in their curriculum a class in French.

In commercial schools.—In commercial schools the central studies are foreign languages, English, French, and German, whose importance is in the order named. In some few localities, as a result of local conditions, Italian is also taught. It matters not whether the institution be a distinct separate commercial school or simply a business section in the high school, the emphasis laid on the practical acquisition of foreign tongues is all-important. For example, in the commercial section in the Costa Rican national high school English is carried throughout the entire course of five years, with an average of more than four hours per week, and French four years, with an average of three hours per week. In the Business College of Sao Paulo, English and French are required in three years of the four, and in the higher supplementary course of two years elementary courses are given in German, Italian, and Spanish. In the regular course of the higher Argentina commercial schools, six hours per week throughout the entire course of five years are devoted to foreign language study, English, French, and either Italian or German. In the commercial schools of Chile English is required for four years to the extent of six hours per week, and either French or German for three years with four recitations per week.

As can be observed from the data given in the preceding paragraphs, the two most widely studied foreign languages in Latin America are French and English. In the south, French is given by far the greater prominence, while in the countries that surround the Caribbean Sea English is predominant. In commercial studies English is everywhere recognized as the more valuable. German and Italian have been introduced only in localities where immigration from those countries has been considerable, and their presence is due more to political than to other motives.

Reasons for foreign-language study.—The reasons for the unusual importance given to modern foreign-language study are many and varied. One is the tradition in favor of so-called cultural studies, a tradition strong and steadfast in Latin countries. Linguistic studies are humanistic. They appeal strongly to the Latin mind. Language and literature, together with history, philosophy, and logic, were the central features of the old education which was brought from Europe by the first settlers, and they have retained their privileged position largely through the force of tradition. The classics disappeared from causes largely extraneous to educational philosophy, and it was but natural that the modern tongues should fill the breach. French owes its preeminent place in part to the fact that it is a sister language and easy to acquire. It was also the universal cultured speech at the epoch when the Spanish colonies broke away from the mother country, and Latin America has ever since considered France the leader in Europe, not only in literature and art but also in philosophy and social sciences, and in the battle for civil and religious freedom. English has come with increased commercial relations, and more especially in the countries around the Caribbean on account of their proximity to English America.

Another reason for the emphasis put upon foreign language in the schools is entirely utilitarian. It is the desire of Latin America to get into closer contact with the world and to give to its children the advantages that are enjoyed by the most progressive nations. Spain is not regarded by her former colonies as a great world power, or the Spanish language as one of the great world speeches. French and English enjoy that distinction, the former on account of its past history and the present prominent place occupied by France in letters, arts, progressive thought, and European politics; the latter because of its wide diffusion, and the ever-increasing importance of Anglo-Saxon industry and commerce. German does not commend itself so strongly because it lacks the historic element of French and the diffusion of English. The Latin American feels that the world's great store of knowledge is embedded in languages other than his own.

In order to become modern, to increase his material prosperity, to give to his America the importance in the world that its extent of territory and its material resources warrant, he must perforce acquire the languages of progressive peoples and learn through them the secrets of progress and prosperity. Whether it be in medicine, in engineering, in pedagogy, in industry, or in the more abstruse sciences of sociology, politics, or theology, he does not feel that he has the most accepted theory or the most exact knowledge unless it bears the trade-mark of a foreign idiom. Secondary-school programs are therefore crowded with modern languages in order that the student may use foreign texts in his professional studies, or even in the high school itself. The primary normal schools include the study of at least one foreign tongue, in order that the teacher may have access to foreign pedagogical treatises and periodicals, and thus know the latest and best educational methods of the progressive nations; in the commercial school unusual emphasis is laid on the acquisition of foreign tongues, not only for the mere sake of intercourse in business relations, but also from the conviction that the knowledge of these tongues will bring increased commercial ability; even the student in the practical industrial and agricultural institutes is thought to be hampered unless he knows the language of at least one nation that has made noted progress in the arts, manufactures, and agrarian pursuits.

Method of instruction.—The manner of teaching foreign languages in Latin America and the extent of the instruction are worthy of remark. The direct method is universally employed, although variations in its application are numerous. The teacher can always speak the language with more or less fluency and exactness, and classroom instruction is given principally in the language studied. Practically all work is done in class in these subjects, as in fact in many others. Since the recitation schedule contains a large number of hours, as is the practice in Europe, little private study is done by the pupil, and what little he does is not new work but merely a review and development of the theme presented in class. In the earlier lessons in foreign language, objects, mural charts, and pictures are much used, and many schools possess an admirable equipment of this sort of apparatus. Formal grammar is not neglected, but in conformity with the philosophy of the direct method is presented in an inductive manner. Much repetition is used. The exercises are kept for a long time in the simplest forms, and reading texts are of the most elementary character. The study is more than practical; it is entirely utilitarian. Literature is not taught either systematically or incidentally except in the universities. The three, four, five, or even six years that may be devoted to a language in the secondary or special schools are spent exclusively upon the language itself. What little reading is done is done not as literature but as a linguistic study. The result is that the average student has a good practical command of foreign languages. He has missed, however, a rare opportunity for cultural study through a wide reading of the literatures, and this could be attained without sacrificing the practical aim.

CHAPTER XVII.

SCHOOL TEXTS.

Reference has already been made to this subject in connection with foreign languages, but only in so far as it applied to higher and special education. The topic presents, however, in Latin America other phases that deserve consideration. It is not only in advanced studies that the want of good texts is felt. The elementary schools also in some countries are very inadequately provided with these common means of instruction, and even the most progressive nations will admit that there is much room for improvement. A good text is a decided aid—nay, more—an incentive to good method, and, on the other hand, methods are commonly reflected in the texts.

Animosity to texts.—When Spanish America began her aggressive campaign in favor of education, the texts commonly in use were antiquated. Moreover, the old pedagogy encouraged the mnemonic habit. Children did little more than memorize the text and repeat the contents in parrot fashion. In the revulsion against this unpedagogic method, texts were largely abolished. Oral teaching came into vogue. The teacher developed the theme and dictated. The pupil listened and took notes or rather copied verbatim the dictation. Such a method was employed not only in the grades, but in the high, normal, and special schools. The lecture method has always been customary in professional schools. The abolition of texts did not overcome the habit of mnemonic recitation, which was the fault of the teaching and not of the text. The pupil simply reproduced the dictated words instead of the printed words. In time the use of textbooks was in a measure restored, but a certain distrust of them persisted and their quality was not always what might be desired. At present conditions vary enormously. The difficulty of the problem is not appreciated at first glance. It is not simply a question of pedagogy or school management. Political, geographical, and historical considerations are involved in the problem. Spanish America is not one unit. On the contrary, it is broken up into 20 different units, widely separated as regards distance and more widely still as regards intercommunication. Difference of climate and local conditions are also important elements. National rivalries and animosities are other causes of isolation. To a great extent, and certainly to a greater extent than is imagined in North America, each State has led a separate existence. All have been separated from the mother country on account of their remoteness, lack of communication, and want of mutual sympathy. All have been aided in their material advancement by foreign capital and energy, but in those intellectual matters that concern the mother tongue each nation has been forced to march alone. All this has constituted a serious handicap in the matter of school texts.

If the entire Spanish-speaking world with its seventy-five millions of inhabitants formed an intellectual unit, it would provide a public that would appeal to talent and to the publishing industries. If even the Spanish-American countries, with their more than fifty millions, formed such a unit the incentive would be all powerful. The preparation of texts is a prosaic affair, and both author and publisher look to the pecuniary profits that are likely to accrue. A small public means, under the very best conditions, a small circulation and an increased cost of publication. The former deters the author and publisher, and the latter is a disadvantage to the public. Even the largest of the Spanish-American Republics contains a relatively small population, and as education is not nearly universal in any the circulation of a primary school text, even in the most favored countries, is necessarily limited. Texts for secondary, normal, industrial, and professional schools suffer still more restricted circulation, since the numbers decrease as the grade of instruction rises. Little wonder, then, that foreign texts play such an important rôle in higher education, and are even found in the secondary schools.

A needed reform.—Another method, however, would be an easier, more logical, more rapid, and more patriotic solution of the difficulty, viz, an intellectual union, not official, but based entirely on intellectual sympathy, between the various Spanish-speaking communities. Such a movement will come sooner or later. Already there are signs of its advent. Recent years have witnessed a decided rapprochement between Spain and the Spanish Republics. The intellectual life of the two branches of the Spanish family has everything to gain in this tendency, and the schools would be among the first to profit. The softening of national asperities in Spanish America, the advance in means of rapid intercommunication, and the remarkable enthusiasm in favor of education, now so noticeable in almost all nations, will undoubtedly bring about a community of interest in intellectual matters. International scientific and pedagogical congresses are signs of a new era. The Pan-American association of university students, now in its fourth year, is another indication of the same tendency. Government commissions and self-constituted delegations of teachers are visiting and studying the schools of adjoining countries. State scholarships are granted by some nations for study in other States that enjoy a reputation for more modern school facilities and methods. As the schoolmen of Spanish America come to know each other better and learn what is being accomplished in sister Republics an edition of a textbook will not be confined to a single country, as is the case at present, and the demand for secondary and university texts will be so extended that publishers will either call for original works or encourage the translation into Spanish of the best foreign texts. Undoubtedly there are two serious obstacles to an early consummation of this program: First, the bitter hostility existing between some countries on account of acute boundary disputes; second, the fact that the most progressive nations in matters of general education are at the two extremities of the long stretch of Spanish-speaking territory that extends from the islands and the Rio Grande on the north to Cape Horn. However, several boundary disputes as threatening as any that remain have been settled amicably in recent years; more accurate geographical knowledge will make some others easier of solution; and the nations are learning that the surest aggrandizement will come through internal development and the universal education of their population. Intercommunication will become more frequent as it becomes more rapid, and it will be easier for the leading States to exercise a beneficent influence over a wider territory.

CHAPTER XVIII.

STUDENT SOCIETIES.

There is nothing in the Latin-American university resembling the Greek-letter societies. Student life is thoroughly democratic, like student life in European universities. There are, however, one or more societies in every institution. Usually there is one in each faculty, and the membership is limited to students of this one department. This was the first form of student association. Later came the federation of the departmental societies into a University Union (Federación Universitaria, or Associación General de Estudiantes). If there is more than one university center in a country, this organization may in its turn be federated with others, thus forming a broader union that comprises all the student associations of the nation. To complete the series, there was organized a few years since the American Student League (Liga de Estudiantes Americanos), which is international and is intended to embrace all university unions of all the Americas. In addition to its services in educational matters this supreme international federation promises to become an effective agency in the promotion of international peace and amity.

To return to the local societies which form the groundwork of the system, it is interesting to trace the development of their ideals. The original motive for organization within each department was very often the desire to present a united opposition to the faculty in case professors proposed regulations that seemed to the students onerous. Student strikes have not been infrequent in some institutions, and to insure their success a permanent student union was almost a necessity. But the movement was destined to develop nobler aims. The society soon became a semiprofessional association. The law society interested itself in legal questions, or the conditions of the practice of law; the medical society in questions of public hygiene, etc. This brought the societies into cooperation with the respective faculties, instead of fostering an attitude of opposition. Professors were invited to address the society, or a public meeting organized by the society on questions of general interest.

Other aims were developed to enlist the activities of the societies, such as reduction of cost of student supplies, improvement in the material conditions of student life, better lodging and food, and

A. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' CONFERENCE, LIMA, PERU. VIEW OF THE CONFERENCE IN SESSION.

B. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' CONFERENCE. RECEPTION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF SAN MARCOS.

conveniences for social fellowship. The university authorities granted the departmental societies rooms in the building, which became student headquarters and in which formal meetings were held. In some universities the societies have developed altruistic tendencies and are trying to be of real service to the community. The most common manifestation of this policy is the organization of series of public lectures on social and economic questions. The societies in the University of Chile organize night schools for workingmen, conduct a propaganda against alcoholism and tuberculosis, and aid in other reforms. The Latin-American student is characteristically idealistic, and it is easy to enlist his support in all measures for the betterment of society.

The University Union may do on a larger scale what is done by the departmental societies, but its chief purpose is to develop student solidarity and to provide a student center. Any student in the institution is eligible for membership and entitled to all the privileges of the association. Students in other professional schools and boys from the high school above a certain age may also become members. Nearly every university has a student clubhouse or at least a suite of rooms. In a very few instances the house is the property of the association, but usually the quarters are rented. The club (centro universitario) contains the offices of the association, a modest lunch room, reading room, and library, an amusement room, perhaps a small gymnasium, and an assembly room large enough for public lectures. The association always publishes a student paper, weekly, fortnightly, or monthly, which however, bears little resemblance to an American college paper. It is not a newspaper, but a serious journal, containing literary and scientific articles, the contributions of both students and professors. In the University of Buenos Aires, where the departmental societies overshadow the University Union, each society publishes its own journal. With its common meeting place, its publication, and its other activities the University Center constitutes an important element in student life. It exercises, moreover, an important influence on the university itself. The union, or the departmental societies, do not hesitate to discuss university policies, and to propose plans for the betterment of the institution. These proposals may refer to the curriculum or to method of instruction, as well as to material matters. It may be that the freedom with which the societies undertake such subjects is due to the fact that the Latin-American professor is not a teacher by profession, and that the student considers his own judgment in matters institutional as good as that of the instructor. The fact that the university is composed almost entirely of professional schools may also explain the prevalence of student interference. Whatever the reason, a student society experiences no sense of embarrassment, and sees nothing inappropriate in recommending changes of curriculum or advocating policies that in a North American university would be reserved exclusively for the faculty and trustees. Nor do professors resent this attitude. The university spirit resembles that of the early mediæval universities, when teachers and students formed one body.

The final step in the student association movement was taken in 1908 when a federation was formed of all the associations in Latin America. In response to an invitation from the society in Uruguay, delegates from many universities assembled in Montevideo for the first student congress. The meeting was such a success, and a union of students from different nations appeared so desirable, that an international organization was effected and a constitution framed. Delegates were present from Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Guatemala, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay. The statutes of the league make every general student society eligible for membership, whether from South, Central, or North America. Besides the general meetings, the congress held departmental meetings under the following divisions: Law, medicine, engineering and architecture, agriculture and zootechnics, commerce, and secondary studies. Among the general topics discussed were: State and private universities, examinations and exemption from examination, specialization and generalization, uniformity of courses and degrees in American universities, student participation in university administration, athletics, scholarships, etc.

The league resolved to hold biennial congresses. The second met at Buenos Aires in 1910 and the third at Lima in 1912. The meeting at Buenos Aires took a further step in perfecting an international organization by creating a permanent central bureau which is to keep in touch with all local associations, maintain a library of student publications, preserve the official records of the league, and arrange the program and other details of the biennial congresses. The bureau was established at Montevideo under the immediate auspices of the Uruguayan association, but the expense of its maintenance is to be distributed among the various societies. The importance of the league and its central bureau in promoting intellectual sympathies throughout the wide area of Latin-America can scarcely be overestimated. A union of effort in educational affairs is certain to have an influence on political relations, and international friendships will be established between many young men who in the course of time will occupy high positions in their respective countries. Students who are promoting the league are not unmindful of the general good results that may follow, as is shown by the watchword of the congresses that have already been held: "The illusions of to-day will be the realities of to-morrow."

The general league is not the only manifestation of international student associations. The University of Bogota, in 1910, called a congress of students from the three republics that formed the ancient confederacy of Bolivar, namely, Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela; and in 1911, on the occasion of the centennial of Venezuela, the University of Caracas called a similar congress. Both meetings were eminently successful and it is proposed to continue the association. The universities of Central America have also held a student convention at Tegucigalpa. These three leagues correspond to the three grand geographical divisions of Latin-America, and each can do much good in its own field. However, the general association formed in the south will comprise the others and exert the greatest influence.

INDEX.

A.

Academic honors, universities, 24.

Academies, organization and function, 33–34.

Agricultural colleges, 105–110; admission requirements, 108; courses of study, 108–109; dissimilarities in organization, 117–118; expenditures, 106.

Agricultural education, 91–92, 104–114; career, 110.

Agricultural schools, Indian, 113–114; normal, 114; physical equipment, 111; practical, 111–113; primary, 110.

Alberdi School, Argentina, work, 91–92.

American Student League, 144.

Argentina, agricultural normal school, 114; annual budget, 41; coeducation, 127; commercial education, 98–99; foreign-language training school, 91; higher education, 12, 18; higher normal school, 87–88; industrial schools, 119–121; law school, 17; medical schools, number, 53, 56–57; national normal schools, course of study, 72; practical school of agriculture, curriculum, 112–113; rural schools, 91–92; students enrolled in universities, 21; teachers' college, 89–91.

Argentina, University of, preparatory schools, 35.

Arequipa, University of, founded, 12-13.

B.

Bahai, medical school, 13, 40, 57.

Bar associations, relations existing between the law schools, 49.

Bogota, founding of colonial university, 11.

Bogota, University of, faculties, 67.

Bolivia, agricultural college, 106; commercial education 99; law schools, 16; medical schools, 53, 57; professional schools, 17.

Brazil, agricultural colleges, 105; commercial education, 100–101; dental schools, 57; educational progress, 15; engineering schools, 16, 61; enrollment of law and medical students, 21; industrial schools, unique type, 124–125; law faculties, salaries, 43; medical schools, number, 53; professional schools, 13, 15–16.

Budgets and salaries, 41–44.

Buenos Aires, coeducation, 127; college of agriculture, 105; engineering school, hours of instruction per week, 64; industrial school, 121–122; medical library, 58; medical school, 14, 39, 57; normal schools, teachers' salaries, 77.

Buenos Aires (Province), coeducation, 127.

Buenos Aires, University of, annual budget, 42; curriculum of law, 46–47; departmental societies, 145; engineering school, 62; enrollment, 21; organized, 12; professors' salaries, 43; teachers' college, 89–90.

Buildings, normal schools, 80–81; universities, 38–40.

C.

Caracas, founding of colonial university, 11; medical school, 14.

Catholic University of Chile, work, 67–68.

Central America, law schools, 16; professional education, 16.

Chile, coeducation, 127; commercial education, 95–97; curricula of medical schools, 56; discussion regarding junior university, 36; engineering schools, 61; high standard of medical profession, 59; industrial schools, 117–119, 123–124; medical schools, duration of studies, 55–57; medical vacation schools, 59; national normal schools, course of study, 72; normal schools, teachers' salaries, 77; nurses' training school, 57; practical school of agriculture, curriculum, 112–113; students enrolled in national university, 21.

Chile, University of, annual budget, 42.

Chilean Normal College, history, 84.

Church, The, and colonial universities, 12.

Church schools, commercial education, 102.

Civil engineering, curricula of three schools, 63–64.

Coeducation, status in Latin America, 85, 126–131.

Colegio de Nuestra Senora del Rosario, work, 66–67.

Colegio del Rosario, work, 67.

Colombia, agricultural college, 105; commercial education, 101; higher education, 12; medical schools, number, 53; national normal schools, course of study, 73.

Commercial education, 94–103; Argentina, 98–99; Bolivia, 99; Brazil, 100–101; Chilean system and curriculum, 95–97; church schools, 102; Colombia, 101; different systems, 95; general status, 103; Mexico, 101; Peru, 101; private colleges, 102; Uruguay, 99.

Commercial schools, and coeducation, 130; modern languages, 137–138.

Commercial studies, high schools, 102.

Cordoba, engineering school, curriculum, 63–64; founding of colonial university, 11.

Cordoba, University of, professors' salaries, 43.

Costa Rica, coeducation, 127.

Courses of study, agricultural colleges, 108–109; commerce, 95–99; engineering schools, 63–64; industrial schools, 118–119; law schools, 46–47, 49–50, 52; normal schools, 71–72, 85; practical schools of agriculture, 112–113; representative medical schools, 56.

Cuzco, founding of colonial university, 11.

Cuzco, University of, professors' salaries, 43.

D.

Degrees, universities, 23–24.

Dentistry, schools, 57.

E.

Ecuador, annual budget, 41; coeducation, 127; law schools, advisability of closing considered, 46; medical schools, 53, 57; plurality of universities, 17.

Elementary industrial schools, 116.

Engineering, education, 19.

Engineering schools, buildings, 39; class and laboratory work, 64; curricula, 63–64; difficulties, 60–61; enrollment, 65; material equipment, 61–62; organization, 62–63; progress, 115. *See also under names of countries and cities.*

Enrollment, students, 21–22, 42.

Escola Polytechnica, Brazil, organization, 16.

Escuela de Educación Física (Chile), manifold activities, 123–124.

Escuela Superior de Comercio (Santiago, Chile), description, 97.

Examinations, normal schools, 74–75; university, 23–24.

Expenses, students, 42.

F.

Faculties, university, 22–23.

Foreign-language training school, Argentina, 91.

G.

Girls, preparatory schools, 35–36.

Girls High School, Costa Rica, normal course, 71.

Guatemala, coeducation, 127; founding of colonial university, 11; medical school, 14.

Guatemala, University of, separate faculties, 33.

Guayaquil, University of, number of students and professors, 42; professors' salaries, 43.

H.

Habana, engineering school, curriculum, 63–64; founding of colonial university, 11.

Higher education, excessive cost, 42. *See also* Universities.

High schools, commercial studies, 101–102. *See also* Secondary schools.

Honduras, law school, further matriculation forbidden, 46.

Hospital facilities, schools of medicine, 55.

I.

Indian schools, agriculture, 113–114.

Industrial education, 115–125; progress, 115.

Industrial schools, buildings, 121; curricula, 118–120; elementary, 116; modern languages, 137; not coeducational, 130; patronage, 123; tuition fees and scholarships, 120–121; women, 122.

Instituto Agricola (Chile), establishment, 105.

Instituto Nacional del Profesorado Secundario (Argentina), curriculum, 88–89; equipment, 89; establishment, 87.

Instituto Pedagogico (Chile), building and equipment, 86–87; general plan, 85.

J.

Junior university, Chile, 36; Uruguay, 36–37.

Jurisprudence. *See* Law.

L.

Laboratories, normal schools, 83.
Laboratory work, better training demanded, 59.
La Escuela Normal de Lenguas Vivas (Argentina), work, 91.
Languages, ancient, study eliminated, 132–135; modern, study, 136–140.
La Paz, medical school, building, 39–40.
La Plata, University of, agricultural school, 105; annual budget, 42; buildings and equipment, 39; curriculum of law, characteristics, 52; history and organization, 18–20; preparatory schools, 35; teachers' college, 90–91.
La Sociedade Propagadora das Bellas Artes (Brazil), work, 124–125.
Latin language, normal schools, 86; study eliminated, 132–135.
Law, an aristocratic profession, 45; education, development, 13–14; title of graduate, Central America, 23. *See also* Teaching.
Law, schools, 13, 16, 21; advantages of curriculum, 51; aims, 47–48; and bar associations, 49; curricula, 46–47; duration of studies, 50; equipment and libraries, 45–46; faculties of Brazil, salaries, 43; general culture courses, 49; methods of instruction, 50–51; organization, 16, 46; practical training minimized, 48–49. *See also under names and cities.*
Lecture methods, 25.
Letter of transmittal, 7–8.
Libraries, medical, 58.
Lima, founding of colonial university, 11; medical school, 14, 40.
Lima, University of, law school, practical training, 49; students enrolled, 21.
Lyceo de Artes e eficios, description, 124–125.

M.

Mackenzie College, work, 68–69.
Manual training schools, girls, 123.
Medellin, University of, established, 12–13.
Medicine, education, 13–14, 16, 21, 53–59; practice, regulated by faculty, 54.
Medicine, schools, curricula, 55–57; duration of studies, 56–57; equipment, 53–54; hospital facilities, 55; modern buildings, 38–39; preparation of professors, 55; subsidiary, 57; vacation, 58–59 well-ordered, 53.
See also under names of countries and cities.
Methods of instruction, law schools, 50; modern languages, 139–140; normal schools, 74.
Mexico, coeducation, 127; commercial education, 101; engineering schools, 62; founding of colonial university, 11; medical schools, number, 53.
Mexico, University of, annual budget, 42.
Midwifery, training, 57.
Modern languages, methods of instruction, 139–140.
Montevideo, agricultural college, curriculum, 109.
Montevideo, University of, annual budget, 42; establishment, 15; professors' salaries, 43–44.
Museums, school, in normal schools, 83.

N.

Nicaragua, law schools, 16.
Non-State institutions, 66–69.
Normal schools, agricultural, 114; admission, 70–71; and coeducation, 130–131; buildings, 80–81; curricula, 71–74; equipment, 82–83; examinations, 74–75; higher, 87–88; laboratories, 83; leasing school property, 81; methods of instruction, 74; modern languages, 137; museums, 83; organization and scholarships, 75–77; personnel, 78–79; practice teaching, 80; primary, 83–84; pupils, social position, 77–78; secretary and professors, 79–80; special, 91; State-owned buildings, 81–82; teachers, social position, 77–78.
Notaries, training, 48.
Nurses' training school, Chile, 57.

O.

O'Graham, Mary, teacher, pensioner of Argentine government, 79.

P.

Panama, professional education, 16.
Peru, agricultural college, 105; commercial education, 101; curricula of medical schools, 56; engineering schools, 61; higher education, 12; medical schools, 53, 57; students enrolled in universities, 21; universities, two coordinate law faculties, 46; university faculties, 22.
Pharmacy, schools, 58.
Piracicaba (Brazil), agricultural college, curriculum, 109.

Polytechnic school of Rio de Janeiro, founded, 62.
Porto Alegre, medical school, 15.
Portuguese-America, training for liberal professions, 11.
Practice schools, 80.
Prefatory note, 9.
Preparatory schools, movement in favor, 35.
Priests, training, 23.
Primary agricultural schools, 110.
Primary normal schools, 83–84.
Primary school and liceo, 78.
Professional education, 11–13, 16–17, 19–20, 23–24.
Professional schools, 15–16, 42.
See also Dentistry, Law, Medicine, Science.
Professors, appointment, and tenure of office, 26–27; appointment, Government confirmation, 31; duties, 28–29; foreign, normal schools, 84–85; German, normal schools, 87; large staff, in universities, 42; medical, preparation, 54–55; methods of choosing, 29–31; prestige, 29; salaries, universities, 43–44; substistitute, 31.
Protestant societies, and education, 66.
Public instruction, encouraged, 66.
Pupils, normal school, social status, 77–78.

R.

Recife, law school, 13, 40.
Restrepo, University of, organization, 12–13.
Rio de Janeiro, engineering school, curriculum, 63–64; industrial school, unique type, 124–125; medical library, 58; medical schools, 13–14, 40; normal schools, teachers' salaries, 77.
Roman Catholic Church, and commercial education, 102; and secondary education, 66.
Rural schools, 91–93.

S.

Salaries, teachers. *See* Teachers, salaries; Professors, salaries.
Salesian Brothers and industrial education, 116.
Salvador, coeducation, 127; medical college, 38–39, 57.
Salvador, University of, separate faculties, 33.
San Jose (Costa Rica), law school, curriculum, 47.
Santa Catalina, practical school of agriculture, curriculum, 112–113.
Santa Fe, Argentina, law school, 17.
Santa Fe, University of, foundation, 16.
Santiago de Chile, agricultural college, curriculum, 109; engineering school, hours of instruction per week, 64; founding of colonial university, 11; industrial school, unique type, 123; medical library, 58; medical schools, duration of studies, 57; practical school of agriculture, curriculum, 112–113.
Santiago de Chile, Catholic University of, architecture and engineering, 61; law faculty, 49.
Santiago de Chile, University of, professors' salaries, 43; separate faculties, 33.
Santo Domingo, founding of colonial university, 11.
Sao Paulo, law school, curriculum, 13, 47.
Scholarships, normal schools, 75–77.
School museums, 83.
School textbooks, animosity to, 141–142; a needed reform, 142–143.
Schools of commerce. *See* Commercial education.
Science, teaching, 14, 16, 19, 74.
Secondary education and Roman Catholic Church, 66.
Secondary schools, relation between the university and, 34–35; status, 22; teachers, 84; teaching modern languages, 138.
Spanish America, training in liberal professions, 11.
Spanish settlements, advantages of higher education, 11.
Special education, 70–125.
Stearns, G. A., founder of normal school of Parana, 79.
Student societies, 144–147.
Students, enrollment, 21–22, 42; expenses, 42; studies and degrees, 21–25.
Studies. *See* Courses of study.
Sucre, founding of colonial university, 11.
Sucre, University of, separate faculties, 33.

T.

Teachers, commercial education, 97; large teaching staff in universities, 42; normal schools, 78–80; salaries, normal schools, 77; secondary schools, 84.
See also Professors.
Teachers' college, University of Buenos Aires, 89–90.
Teachers' college, University of La Plata, 90.
Teaching, hours per week, 37, 42; not a distinct profession, 27–28.
Textbooks, animosity to, 141–142; a needed reform, 142–143; medical, 58.
Theology, almost eliminated in universities, 22–23; faculty of, 12.
Trade schools, equipment and students, 117.
Trades, training for, 116–117.
Trujillo, University of, organized, 12–13.

U.

Universities, 11–69; administration, 32; buildings, 38–40; budgets and salaries, 41–44; coeducation in, 128–129; decentralization, 31–32; departments scattered, 32; founding, 11–20; organization, 26–37; reasons for multiplication, 16–18.
Uruguay, coeducation, 127–128; commercial education, 99; engineering schools, 61; junior university, 36–37; medical college, modern equipment, 38, 40.
Uruguay, University of, early history, 15.

V.

Vacation schools, medical, 58–59.
Venezuela, curricula of medical schools, 56; medical schools, number, 53.

W.

Women, industrial schools, 122–123; State universities open to, 128–129.

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UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1912, NO. 31 - - - - - - - WHOLE NUMBER 505

EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY
1912

WASHINGTON
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1912

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(Titles abridged.)

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(Continued on p. 3 of cover.)

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION
BULLETIN, 1912, NO. 31 - - - - - - WHOLE NUMBER 505

EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY
1912

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1912

CONTENTS.

Page.

I. Chief State school officers.......... 5

II. Officers of State boards of education.......... 6

III. Executive officers of State library commissions.......... 7

IV. Superintendents in cities and towns of 4,000 population and over.......... 8

V. County superintendents.......... 30

VI. University and college presidents.......... 53

VII. Professors of pedagogy and heads of departments of pedagogy in universities and colleges.......... 63

VIII. Principals of normal schools:

Public normal schools.......... 66

Private normal schools.......... 71

IX. Summer school directors.......... 73

X. American educational associations, national and sectional.......... 86

EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY, 1912.

I.—CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICERS.

[Corrected to Dec. 1, 1912, in so far as changes have been reported to the bureau.]

Name.	Address.	Official designation.
Henry J. Willingham	Montgomery, Ala	State superintendent of education.
C. O. Case	Phoenix, Ariz	State superintendent of public instruction.
George B. Cook	Little Rock, Ark	Do.
Edward Hyatt	Sacramento, Cal	Do.
Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford	Denver, Colo	Do.
Charles D. Hine	Hartford, Conn	Secretary of State board of education.
Theo. Townsend	Dover, Del	Do.
W. M. Davidson	Washington, D. C	Superintendent of District schools.
W. M. Holloway	Tallahassee, Fla	State superintendent of public instruction.
M. L. Brittain	Atlanta, Ga	State superintendent of schools.
Grace M. Shepherd	Boise, Idaho	State superintendent of public instruction.
Francis G. Blair	Springfield, Ill	Do.
harles A. Greathouse	Indianapolis, Ind	Do.
A. M. Deyoe	Des Moines, Iowa	Do.
E. T. Fairchild	Topeka, Kans	Do.
Barksdale Hamlett	Frankfort, Ky	Do.
T. H. Harris	Baton Rouge, La	State superintendent of public education.
Payson Smith	Augusta, Me	State superintendent of public schools.
M. Bates Stephens	Annapolis, Md	State superintendent of public education.
David Snedden	Boston, Mass	State commissioner of education.
Luther L. Wright	Lansing, Mich	State superintendent of public instruction.
C. G. Schulz	St. Paul, Minn	Do.
J. N. Powers	Jackson, Miss	State superintendent of public education.
William P. Evans	Jefferson City, Mo	State superintendent of public schools.
H. A. Davee	Helena, Mont	State superintendent of public instruction.
J. E. Delzell	Lincoln, Nebr	Do.
John Edwards Bray	Carson, Nev	Do.
H. C. Morrison	Concord, N. H	Do.
Calvin N. Kendall	Trenton, N. J	State commissioner of education.
A. N. White	Santa Fe, N. Mex	State superintendent of public instruction.
Andrew S. Draper	Albany, N. Y	State commissioner of education.
J. Y. Joyner	Raleigh, N. C	State superintendent of public instruction.
Edwin J. Taylor	Bismarck, N. Dak	Do.
Frank W. Miller	Columbus, Ohio	State commissioner of common schools.[1]
Robert H. Wilson	Oklahoma City, Okla	State superintendent of public instruction.
L. R. Alderman	Salem, Oreg	Do.
Nathan C. Schaeffer	Harrisburg, Pa	Do.
Walter E. Ranger	Providence, R. I	Commissioner of public schools.
J. E. Swearingen	Columbia, S. C	State superintendent of education.
C. G. Lawrence	Pierre, S. Dak	State superintendent of public instruction.
J. W. Brister	Nashville, Tenn	Do.
F. M. Bralley	Austin, Tex	Do.
A. C. Nelson	Salt Lake City, Utah	Do
Mason S. Stone	Montpelier, Vt	State superintendent of education.
R. C. Stearnes	Richmond, Va	State superintendent of public instruction.
Mrs. Josephine Preston	Olympia, Wash	Do.
M. P. Shawkey	Charleston, W. Va	State superintendent of free schools.
C. P. Cary	Madison, Wis	State superintendent of public schools.
Miss Rose A. Bird	Cheyenne, Wyo	State superintendent of public instruction.
Walter E. Clark	Juneau, Alaska	Governor, and ex officio superintendent of education.
Willis T. Pope	Honolulu, Hawaii	Superintendent of public instruction.
Frank R. White	Manila, P. I	Director of education.
Edward M. Bainter	San Juan, P. R	Commissioner of education.

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[1] This designation changed to "Superintendent of public instruction" by constitutional amendment to take effect the second Monday of July, 1913.

II.—Officers of State Boards of Education.[1]

Officers of the board.	Post-office address.	Other official title.
George E. P. Hunt, chairman	Phoenix, Ariz.	Governor.
C. O. Case, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
George B. Cook, chairman	Little Rock, Ark.	Do.
B. W. Torreyson, secretary	do	
Hiram W. Johnson, president	Sacramento, Cal.	Governor.
Edward Hyatt, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
Mrs. Helen M. Wixson, president	Denver, Colo.	Do.
James B. Pearce, secretary	do	Secretary of state.
Simeon E. Baldwin, president	New Haven, Conn.	Governor.
Charles D. Hine, secretary	Hartford, Conn.	
George W. Twimeyer, chairman	Wilmington, Del.	Supt. of public schools of Wilmington.
Theo. Townsend, secretary	Dover, Del.	State auditor.
James F. Oyster, president	Washington, D. C.	
H. O. Hine, secretary	do	
Albert W. Gilchrist, president	Tallahassee, Fla.	Governor.
W. M. Holloway, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
Joseph M. Brown, president	Atlanta, Ga.	Governor.
M. L. Brittain, secretary	do	State superintendent of schools.
Miss Grace M. Shepherd, president.	Boise, Idaho	State superintendent of public instruction.
W. L. Gifford, secretary	do	
Charles A. Greathouse, president	Indianapolis, Ind.	Do.
W. W. Parsons, secretary	Terre Haute, Ind.	
James H. Trewin, president	Cedar Rapids, Iowa	
D. A. Emery, secretary	Des Moines, Iowa	
E. T. Fairchild, president	Topeka, Kans.	Do.
L. D. Whittemore, secretary	do	Assistant State superintendent.
Barksdale Hamlett, chairman	Frankfort, Ky.	State superintendent of public instruction.
C. F. Crecilius, secretary	do	Secretary of state.
Luther E. Hall, president	Baton Rouge, La.	Governor.
T. H. Harris, secretary	do	State superintendent of public education.
P. L. Goldsborough, president	Annapolis, Md.	Governor.
M. Bates Stephens, secretary	do	State superintendent of public education.
Frederick P. Fish, chairman	Boston, Mass.	
David Snedden, executive officer	do	State commissioner of education.
D. M. Ferry, president	Detroit, Mich.	
Luther L. Wright, secretary	Lansing, Mich.	State superintendent of public instruction.
J. N. Powers, president	Jackson, Miss.	State superintendent of public education.
J. W. Power, secretary	do	
Wm. P. Evans, president	Jefferson, Mo.	State superintendent of public schools.
Cornelius Roach, secretary	do	Secretary of state.
Edwin L. Norris, president	Helena, Mont.	Governor.
W. E. Harmon, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
Tasker L. Oddie, president	Carson City, Nev.	Governor.
John E. Bray, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
Wm. G. Schauffler, president	Lakewood, N. J.	
Calvin N. Kendall, secretary	Trenton, N. J.	State commissioner of education.
Wm. C. McDonald, president	Santa Fe, N. Mex.	Governor.
Alvan N. White, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
Whitelaw Reid, chancellor of board of regents.	New York, N. Y.	
Andrew S. Draper, chief executive officer.	Albany, N. Y.	State commissioner of education.
W. W. Kitchin, president	Raleigh, N. C.	Governor.
J. Y. Joyner, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
R. H. Wilson, chairman	Oklahoma City, Okla.	Do.
L. T. Huffman, secretary	do	
Oswald West, president	Salem, Oreg.	Governor.
L. R. Alderman, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
Nathan C. Schaeffer, president	Harrisburg, Pa.	Do.
J. George Becht, executive secretary	do	
Abram J. Pothier, president	Woonsocket, R. I.	Governor.
Walter E. Ranger, secretary	Providence, R. I.	Commissioner of public schools.
Cole L. Blease, chairman	Columbia, S. C.	Governor.
J. E. Swearingen, secretary	do	State superintendent of education.
B. W. Hooper, president	Nashville, Tenn.	Governor.
J. W. Brister, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
O. B. Colquitt, president	Austin, Tex.	Governor.
F. M. Bralley, secretary	do	State superintendent of public instruction.
A. C. Nelson, chairman	Salt Lake City, Utah	Do.
J. T. Kingsbury, secretary	do	
Joseph D. Eggleston, president	Richmond, Va.	Do.
R. C. Stearns, secretary	do	
Henry B. Dewey, president	Olympia, Wash.	Do.
F. F. Nalder, secretary	do	Deputy superintendent of public instruction.
M. P. Shawkey, president	Charleston, W. Va.	State superintendent of free schools.
J. D. Garrison, secretary	Sisterville, W. Va.	

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[1] Thirty-six States have State boards of education, as here indicated; the others have none.

III.—Executive Officers of State Library Commissions.[1]

Executive officer.	Post-office address.	Name of commission.
Thomas M. Owen, director	State Capitol, Montgomery, Ala.	State department of archives and history, division of library extension.
James L. Gillis, State librarian	Sacramento, Cal.	California State library.
C. R. Dudley, president	Public Library, Denver, Colo.	State board of library commissioners.
Miss Carrie M. Cushing, transfer clerk.	The Capitol, Denver, Colo.	State traveling library commission.
Mrs. Belle H. Johnson, library visitor.	State Capitol, Hartford, Conn.	State public library committee.
H. Ridgely Harrington, secretary	State Library, Dover, Del.	State library commission.
Mrs. Percival Sneed, organizer	Carnegie Library, Atlanta, Ga.	Do.
Miss Margaret S. Roberts, secretary	State House, Boise, Idaho.	Do.
Miss Eugenia Allin, organizer	Decatur, Ill.	State library extension commission.
Carl H. Milam, secretary	State House, Indianapolis, Ind.	State public library commission.
Miss Alice S. Tyler, secretary	State Historical Building, Des Moines, Iowa.	State library commission.
Mrs. Adrian Greene, secretary	State Library, Topeka, Kans.	Kansas traveling libraries commission.
Miss Fannie C. Rawson, secretary	Capitol, Frankfort, Ky.	State library commission.
Herbert E. Holmes, secretary	State Library, Augusta, Me.	Do.
Bernard C. Steiner, secretary	Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Md.	Maryland public library commission.
Miss Zaidee M. Brown, agent	State Library, Boston, Mass.	Massachusetts free public library commission.
Mrs. Mary C. Spencer, secretary	State Library, Lansing, Mich.	State board of library commissioners.
Miss Clara F. Baldwin, secretary	The Capitol, St. Paul, Minn.	State public library commission.
Miss Elizabeth B. Wales, secretary.	Capitol Annex, Jefferson City, Mo.	State library commission.
Miss Charlotte Templeton, secretary	The Capitol, Lincoln, Nebr.	State public library commission.
Arthur H. Chase, secretary	State Library, Concord, N. H.	Do.
Henry C. Buchanan, secretary	State Library, Trenton, N. J.	Do.
W. R. Eastman, chief of division	Albany, N. Y.	Division of educational extension, New York State education department.
Miss Minnie W. Leatherman, sec	Raleigh, N. C.	State library commission.
Mrs. Minnie C. Budlong, secretary and director.	The Capitol, Bismarck, N. Dak.	State public library commission.
C. B. Galbreath, secretary	State Library, Columbus, Ohio.	State board of library commissioners.
Miss Cornelia Marvin, secretary	State House, Salem, Oreg.	State library commission.
T. L. Montgomery, secretary	State Library, Harrisburg, Pa.	Pennsylvania free library commission.
Walter E. Ranger, secretary	State House, Providence, R. I.	State committee on libraries, Rhode Island State education department.
Mrs. Pearl W. Kelley, secretary	Carnegie Library, Nashville, Tenn.	Tennessee free library commission.
Ernest W. Winkler, secretary	State Library, Austin, Tex.	State library and historical commission.
Howard R. Driggs, secretary	University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.	Library gymnasium of State board of education.
Miss Rebecca W. Wright, secretary.	State House, Montpelier, Vt.	State board of library commissioners.
H. R. McIlwaine, librarian	State Library, Richmond, Va.	Virginia State library.
J. M. Hitt, secretary	State Library, Olympia, Wash.	State library commission.
Matthew S. Dudgeon, secretary	The Capitol, Madison, Wis.	Wisconsin free library commission.

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[1] Thirty-five States have library commissions, as here indicated.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
ALABAMA.						
Alabama City	4,313	Jay D. Bradley	1	Apr. 1, 1912	June 30, 1913	$1,350
Anniston	12,794	David R. Murphy	1	Oct. —, 1898	June 1, 1913	2,000
Bessemer	10,864	A. A. Persons				
Birmingham	132,685	John H. Phillips	5	July —, 1883	June 30, 1916	5,000
Decatur	4,228	J. M. Collier	2	July —, 1905	May —, 1911	1,500
Dothan	7,016	James V. Brown	1	June —, 1906	May —, 1913	2.500
Eufaula	4,259	Herman L. Upshaw	3	Dec. —, 1910	Aug. —, 1915	1,800
Florence	6,689	James B. Lockhart	1	June 26, 1907	June 26, 1913	1,320
Gadsden	10,557	Wm. Cornelius Griggs	2	June 14, 1912	July 1, 1913	2,000
Girard	4,214	Reuben A. Gamble	1	May 22, 1912	May 30, 1913	1,000
Huntsville	7,611	Robert E. Sessions				
Mobile	51,521	Samuel S. Murphy	4	Sept. 1, 1900	Aug. 31, 1912	3,000
Montgomery	38,136	Charles L. Floyd	2	July 1, 1889	June 30, 1913	3,000
New Decatur	6,118	William F. Jones	2	July —, 1909	June 30, 1914	1,600
Opelika	4,734	Floy Hall	1	July 1, 1910	June 30, 1913	1,800
Phoenix	4,555	L. F. Rutledge	1	—— —, 1911	May —, 1913	900
Selma	13,649	Arthur F. Harman	1	July 1, 1908	June 30, 1913	2,500
Sheffield	4,865	William P. Johnson	1	June —, 1911	Sept. —, 1913	1,500
Talladega	5,854	Daniel A. McNeill	2	May —, 1906	Aug. 31, 1914	1,800
Troy	4,961	John R. McLure	1	May —, 1911	May 17, 1913	1,200
Tuscaloosa	8,407	James H. Foster	1	July 1, 1893	June 30, 1913	2,100
Union Springs	4,055	Wm. Robert Harrison	2	—— —, 1901	do	2,000
ARIZONA.						
Bisbee	9,019	Charles F. Philbrook	1	Aug. 31, 1904	Aug. 31, 1913	2,400
Clifton	4,874	Frank Dykes	1	July 23, 1911	June 1, 1912	1,800
Douglas	6,437	William E. Lutz	1	Jan. 1, 1906	July 31, 1913	2,800
Globe	7,083	O. F. Munson				
Morenci	5,010	C. A. Goggin	1	Sept. —, 1908	May —, 1913	
Phoenix	11,134	John D. Loper	1	July 1, 1909	June 30, 1913	3,500
Prescott	5,092	Warren D. Baker	1	Aug. —, 1908	do	2,280
Tucson	13,193	Sidney C. Newsom				
ARKANSAS.						
Argenta	11,138	D. L. Paisley				
El Dorado	4,202	Thomas C. Abbott	1	July —, 1909	July —, 1913	1,620
Fayetteville	4,471	Frank S. Root	1	June 1, 1907	June 1, 1913	1,000
Fort Smith	23,975	James W. Kuykendall	1	May 25, 1905	June 30. 1913	3.200
Helena	8,772	Samuel H. Spragins	1	May 1, 1901	June 6, 1913	1,800
Hot Springs	14,434	Frank W. Miller	1	July 1, 1908	July 1, 1913	2,400
Jonesboro	7,123	Dudley T. Rogers	1	Sept. —, 1893	Sept. —, 1913	1,600
Little Rock	45,941	Robert C. Hall	1	June —, 1909	June —, 1913	3.000
Marianna	4,810	J. H. Andrews		—— —, ——		
Paragould	5,248	Louis B. Ray	1	Mar. —, 1912	May —, 1913	1.350
Pine Bluff	15,102	Junius Jordon	4	July —, 1906	July —, 1912	2,000
Texarkana	5,655	George W. Reid	1	June 1, 1910	June —, 1913	2,400
CALIFORNIA.						
Alameda	23,383	William C. Wood	4	June 1, 1909	May —, 1915	3,600
Alhambra	5,021	Nathan F. Smith [1]	1	July 1, 1908	June 30, 1913	3,000
Bakersfield	12,727	David W. Nelson	4	June 30, 1896	June 30, 1914	2,500
Berkeley	40,434	Morris C. James	4	July 1, 1912	June 30, 1916	3,600
Coalinga	4,199	Osmer Abbott [1]				
Eureka	11,845	Charles C. Hughes	4	May —, 1911	May —, 1915	2,500
Fresno	24.892	Charles L. McLane	4	July 1, 1899	—— —, 1913	4,250
Grass Valley	4,520	J. S. Hennessey [1]				
Hanford	4,829	Mrs. N. E. Davidson	4	Jan. —, 1903	Jan. —, 1915	1,800
Long Beach	17.809	William L. Stephens	4	Aug. 1, 1912	July 31, 1916	4,250
Los Angeles	319,198	John H. Francis	4	Aug. —, 1910	Aug. 1, 1914	6.000
Marysville	5,430	William P. Cramsie	4	Jan. 1, 1911	Jan. —, 1915	1,800
Modesto	4,034	Thomas Downey	2	July 1, 1911	July 1, 1913	2,700
Monterey	4,923	George Schultzberg [1]	1	Aug. —, 1907	Aug. —, 1913	1,500
Napa	5,791	John L. Shearer [1]	1	Aug. —, 1879	May 30, 1913	1.740
Oakland	150,174	John W. McClymonds	4	Apr. —, 1889	Apr. —, 1913	4,000
Ontario	4.274	Jefferson Taylor [1]	1	June —, 1897	June 30, 1913	1,600
Palo Alto	4,486	Joseph C. Templeton	1	July 1, 1907	do	2,400
Pasadena	30,291	Jeremiah M. Rhodes	4	July 31, 1911	June 30, 1915	5,000
Petaluma	5,880	E. Bachman Dykes [1]	1	June —, 1908	June 1, 1913	2.100
Pomona	10,207	William R. Murphy	4	July 1, 1910	June 30, 1914	2,500
Redlands	10.449	Charles H. Covell	4	July 1, 1909	June 30, 1915	3,200
Richmond	6.802	Walter T. Helms	4	—— —, 1908	—— —, 1916	2,400
Riverside	15,212	Arthur N. Wheelock	1	June 30, 1902	June 30, 1913	3,000
Sacramento	44,696	Oliver W. Erlewine	4	Feb. 5, 1894	Dec. 31, 1914	2,700
San Bernardino	12,779	Francis W. Conrad	4	July 1, 1903	June —, 1915	2.400
San Diego	39,578	Duncan MacKinnon	4	July —, 1905	July 1, 1913	3,360

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[1] Supervising principal.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
CALIFORNIA—con.						
San Francisco	416,912	Alfred Roncovieri	4	Jan. 8, 1906	Jan. 8, 1915	$4,000
San Jose	28,946	Alexander Sheriffs	4	July 1, 1906	June 30, 1914	3,600
San Luis Obispo	5,157	Charles R. Small	1	July —, 1911	July —, 1913	2,500
San Mateo	4,384	George W. Hall[1]	4	Jan. 1, 1894	June 30, 1915	2,400
San Rafael	5,934	Archibald B. Anderson	1	Feb. —, 1910	July —, 1913	2,700
Santa Ana	8,429	John A. Cranston	4	July 1, 1906	June 30, 1914	3,000
Santa Barbara	11,659	Francis M. Fultz	4	Aug. 1, 1909	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500
Santa Clara	4,348	William John Hayward[1]	2	July —, 1906	June 30, 1914	....
Santa Cruz	11,146	John W. Linscott	4	July 1, 1906	June 30, 1915	2,700
Santa Monica	7,847	Horace Michie Rebok	4	July 1, 1907	June 30, 1916	3,300
Santa Rosa	7,817	Thos. F. Brownscombe	1	Sept. —, 1910	July —, 1913	2,500
South Pasadena	4,649	George C. Bush[1]	1	Aug. —, 1905	June 30, 1913	2,700
Stockton	23,253	Ansel S. Williams	....	....	....	....
Vallejo	11,340	Carl Nielson	....	....	....	....
Visalio	4,550	....	....	....	....	....
Watsonville	4,446	Thomas S. MacQuiddy[1]	1	Mar. —, 1907	June 30, 1913	2,400
Whittier	4,550	Milton R. Parmelee[1]	4	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1915	2,000
COLORADO.						
Boulder	9,539	William V. Casey	1	—— —, 1894	June 1, 1913	2,500
Canon City	5,162	William H. Ray	1	May —, 1911	June —, 1913	1,743
Colorado City	4,333	Elbert C. Best	1	June —, 1912	Sept. 1, 1913	1,500
Colorado Springs	29,078	Carlos Merton Cole	3	May 16, 1910	Aug. 31, 1913	3,500
Cripple Creek	6,206	Wilson M. Shafer	1	—— —, 1901	Sept. —, 1913	3,000
Denver	213,381	William H. Smiley	1	Aug. 21, 1912	Jan. —, 1913	5,000
Durango	4,686	Emory E. Smiley	1	July 1, 1906	June 30, 1913	2,400
Fort Collins	8,210	A. H. Dunn	....	....	....	....
Grand Junction	7,754	John Henry Allen	3	June —, 1904	June —, 1913	2,750
Greeley	8,179	Charles E. Carter	....	....	....	....
La Junta	4,154	Frederick P. Austin	1	May —, 1912	July 31, 1913	2,000
Leadville	7,508	Sanford L. Stoner	1	May —, 1912	do.	2,000
Longmont	4,256	Rae Harman Kiteley	2	June —, 1905	June —, 1913	1,900
Pueblo:						
District No. 1	44,395	Frank D. Slutz	1	June 2, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	3,000
District No. 20		John F. Keating	....	July 19, 1896	....	....
Salida	4,425	Edgar Kesner	1	Sept. —, 1898	Aug. —, 1913	1,700
Trinidad	10,204	Jesse R. Morgan	2	Sept. —, 1909	Sept. —, 1914	2,400
CONNECTICUT.						
Ansonia	15,152	Timothy J. Stevenson	1	Sept. 1, 1912	Sept. 1, 1913	1,700
Branford	6,047	Herman S. Lovejoy[1]	1	Apr. —, 1903	June —, 1913	2,000
Bridgeport	102,054	Charles W. Deane	3	May —, 1893	Aug. —, 1915	....
Bristol	13,502	Newell Jennings	1	Feb. 1, 1908	July 14, 1913	1,200
Danbury	23,502	Fredk. J. Brownscombe	....	....	....	....
Derby	8,991	Edward Fitzgerald	1	June —, 1912	June —, 1913	2,000
East Hartford	8,138	John W. Kratzer	1	July —, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,500
Enfield	9,719	(2)	....	....	....	....
Fairfield	6,134	Grover C. Bowman[3]	2	Sept. 1, 1912	Sept. —, 1914	2,000
Glastonbury	4,796	Leon A. Martin	1	—— —, 1906	June —, 1913	1,600
Greenwich	16,463	Edwin C. Andrews	1	Aug. 1, 1910	July 31, 1913	3,000
Griswold	4,233	(2)	....	....	....	....
Groton	6,495	(2)	....	....	....	....
Hamden	5,850	Margaret L. Keefe	....	....	....	....
Hartford	98,915	Thomas S. Weaver	1	June —, 1901	June 1, 1913	2,000
Huntington	6,545	Harry E. Fowler	....	....	....	....
Killingly	6,564	Albert S. Ames	1	Nov. 15, 1910	July 1, 1913	1,500
Manchester	13,641	Alfred F. Howes	1	July —, 1910	July 14, 1913	1,800
Meriden	32,066	David Gibbs	(4)	Sept. 1, 1911	....	3,000
Middletown	11,851	Wm. Alonzo Wheatley	1	Jan. 1, 1910	Sept. —, 1913	2,800
Milford	4,366	Herbert I. Mathewson	1	Jan. —, 1911	July 1, 1913	1,800
Naugatuck	12,722	Frank Warren Eaton	1	—— —. 1905	July 1, 1913	2,500
New Britain	43,916	Stanley H. Holmes	1	Aug. 1, 1906	Aug. 1, 1913	3,400
New Haven	133,605	Frank H. Beede	5	—— —, 1900	Sept. 1, 1916	4,500
New London	19,659	Chas. B. Jennings	1	May —, 1908	Sept. —, 1913	2,500
New Milford	5,010	John Pettibone	1	Oct. —, 1902	Oct. —, 1912	2,100
Norwalk	24,211	Ira T. Chapman	1	June 1, 1912	July 15, 1913	2,700
Norwich	28,219	Edward J. Graham	1	June 29, 1912	June 19, 1913	3,000
Plainfield	6,719	John Lee Chapman	1	Aug. 1, 1905	July 31, 1913	1,400
Plymouth	5,021	Andrew S. Gaylord	....	....	....	....
Putnam	7,280	Jacob E. Wignot	1	June 24, 1912	June 20, 1913	2,000
Rockville	7,977	Harry B. Marsh[1]	....	....	....	....
Seymour	4,786	Charles R. Sumf	....	....	....	....
Southington	6,516	Ernest C. Witham	1	Aug. 1, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	1,600

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[1] Supervising principal.

[2] No superintendent.

[3] See also Westport.

[4] Indefinite tenure.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
CONNECTICUT—con.						
South Manchester		Fred A. Verplanck	1	Aug. —, 1893	July 15, 1913	$3,500
Stafford	5,233	(1)				
Stamford	28,836					
Stonington	9,154	William Henry Perry	1	July 15, 1910	July 14, 1913	2,250
Stratford	5,712	William B. Kelsey	1	Aug. 1, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	2,000
Thompson	4,804	(1)				
Torrington	16,840	Edwin H. Forbes				
Wallingford	11,155	Alfred B. Morrill	1	May —, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	2,200
Waterbury	73,141	Berlin W. Tinker	2	Sept. —, 1897	June —, 1913	3,800
West Hartford	4,808	William H. Hall	1	Nov. 1, 1897	June 30, 1913	1,500
West Haven	8,543	Edgar Crane Stiles	1	July 1, 1898	July 1, 1913	3,100
Westport	4,259	Grover C. Bowman	2	Sept. 1, 1912	Sept. 1, 1914	2,000
Willimantic	11,230					
Winchester	8,679	Frank E. Fisk	1	May —, 1911	July 14, 1913	2,000
Windsor	4,178	Daniel Howard	3	—— —, 1910	—— —, 1913	2,200
DELAWARE.						
Wilmington	87,411	George W. Twitmyer	2	July —, 1900	June 30, 1913	2,500
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.						
Washington	331,069	Wm. M. Davidson	3	June —, 1911	June 30, 1914	5,000
FLORIDA.						
Gainesville	6,183	J. L. Kelley [2]				
Jacksonville	57,699	James I. Palmer [2]	4	Dec. —, 1907	Jan. —, 1913	2,400
Key West	19,945	Virgil S. Lowe [2]	4	Jan. 5, 1909	Jan. —, 1913	1,200
Lake City	5,032	John W. Burns [2]	4	Nov. —, 1908	Jan. —, 1913	1,200
Miami	5,471	Robert Eric Hall [2]	4	Jan. 1, 1905	Jan. 1, 1913	2,000
Ocala	4,370	John H. Workman [3]	1	—— —, 1903	May —, 1913	1,400
Pensacola	22,982	Nathan B. Cook [2]	4	Jan. —, 1885	Jan. 1, 1913	2,100
St. Augustine	5,494	W. S. M. Pinkham [2]				
St. Petersburg	4,127	John M. Guilliams	2	June —, 1911	May —, 1913	2,250
Tallahassee	5,018	Edward B. Eppes [2]				
Tampa	37,782	Ludwig W. Buchholz [2]	4	Dec. —, 1908	Jan. —, 1913	3,000
West Tampa	8,258					
GEORGIA.						
Albany	8,190	John Stephen Allen	1	June 7, 1912	June 30, 1913	2,000
Americus	8,063	James E. Mathis	1	July 1, 1912	do	2,400
Athens	14,913	George G. Bond	3	July 1, 1891	June 30, 1914	2,300
Atlanta	154,839	William M. Slaton	1	June 8, 1907	June 30, 1913	3,600
Augusta	41,040	Lowton Bryan Evans	1	Nov. 11, 1882	Dec. 31, 1912	4,000
Bainbridge	4,217	John F. Thomason	1	June 1, 1911	June 1, 1913	1,800
Brunswick	10,182	Nathaniel H. Ballard	3	—— —, 1901	—— —, 1913	2,400
Cartersville	4,067	Henry L. Sewell	1	July —, 1905	June —, 1913	1,500
Columbus	20,554	Roland B. Daniel	1	Nov. 1, 1909	June 30, 1913	2,750
Cordele	5,883	W. R. Lanier				
Dalton	5,324	Thomas S. Lucas	1	July —, 1908	June 1, 1913	1,800
Dublin	5,795	Roland E. Brooks	1	June —, 1908	May 30, 1913	1,825
Elberton	6,483	Charles E. Dryden	1	May —, 1912	June 30, 1913	2,000
Fitzgerald	5,795	Horace B. Ritchie	1	Nov. —, 1911	July 31, 1913	1,800
Gainesville	5,925	James A. Mershon	1	Mar. 1, 1910	May —, 1913	1,650
Griffin	7,478	James A. Jones				
La Grange	5,587	Clifford L. Smith	1	June 1, 1903	May 31, 1913	1,740
Macon	40,665	Charles H. Bruce	1	July 11, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	3,500
Marietta	5,949	William T. Dumas	1	Aug. 9, 1904	July 1, 1913	1,675
Milledgeville	4,385	Ozy Roscoe Horton	1	Apr. 28, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,800
Newnan	5,548	E. A. Armistead				
Rome	12,099	James C. Harris	1	Oct. 1, 1892	June —, 1913	2,000
Savannah	65,064	Otis Ashmore	1	July —, 1896	June —, 1913	3,600
Summerville	4,361	John W. Stipe	1	Aug. 7, 1912	June —, 1913	900
Thomasville	6,727	James A. Duncan	1	May —, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,800
Valdosta	7,656	William Otis Roberts	1	Oct. —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,800
Waycross	14,485	Augustus G. Miller	1	June 1, 1912	May 31, 1913	2,400
IDAHO.						
Boise	17,358	Charles S. Meek	3	Mar. —, 1908	July —, 1915	4,000
Coeur d'Alene	7,291	Charles Johnson				
Idaho Falls	4,827	Benjamin R. Crandall	2	Apr. —, 1907	Sept. 1, 1913	2,500

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[1] No superintendent. [2] County superintendent. [3] Principal of high school.

IV.—Superintendents in Cities and Towns of 4,000 Population and Over—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
IDAHO—continued.						
Lewiston	6,043	Frank H. Huntworth	1	July 1,1910	July 1,1913	$2,100
Nampa	4,205	V. Meldo Hillis	1	Apr. 8,1912	June 8,1913	2,000
Pocatello	9,110	Walter R. Siders	2	Aug. 1,1909	May 31,1913	3,000
Twin Falls	5,258	Oliver M. Elliott	3	May 1,1909	July 1,1915	2,750
ILLINOIS.						
Alton	17,528	Robert A. Haight	1	Jan. —,1881	June 30,1913	2,700
Aurora:						
East side	29,807	Conrad M. Bardwell	1	Aug. —,1896	July 1,1913	3,250
West side		Carleton E. Douglass	1	Jan. —,1910	June —,1913	2,400
Batavia	4,436	Hugh A. Bone	1	May 8,1909	June 30,1913	2,200
Beardstown	6,107	Horace G. Russell	1	May 26,1910	May 29,1913	1,900
Belleville	21,122	George H. Busick	1	June —,1903	July 1,1912	2,100
~~Belvidere~~	7,253	Eugene D. Merriman	1	Sept. —,1905	June —,1913	1,900
Berwyn	5,841	Eugene A. Wilson	1	June —,1906	June 30,1913	2,200
Bloomington	25,768	John Kay Stableton	1	July 1,1901	June 30,1912	....
~~Blue Island~~	8,043	Jephtha E. Lemon	1	June —,1894	July 1,1912	3,600
Cairo	14,548	Taylor C. Clendenen	1	July 1,1886	June 30,1913	2,400
Canton	10,453	George W. Gaylor	1	May —,1910	May 26,1913	2,100
Carbondale	5,411	E. E. McLaughlin	1	—— —,1907	June —,1912	1,800
Centralia	9,680	Samuel H. Bohn	1	May 13,1902	June —,1913	1,800
Champaign	12,421	William W. Earnest	1	Mar. 1,1908	June 30,1913	2,500
Charleston	5,884	De Witt Elwood	1	Aug. —,1903	.....do.......	2,000
Chicago	2,185,283	Ella Flagg Young	1	July 31,1909	Dec. —,1912	10,000
~~Chicago Heights~~	14,525	Francis M. Richardson	1	Aug. 1,1901	Sept. 1,1912	2,500
Cicero	14,557	William W. Lewton	1	Sept. —,1908	June 22,1913	2,500
Clinton	5,165	Henry H. Edmunds	1	July 1,1907	June 30,1913	1,800
Collinsville	7,478	Charles H. Dorris	1	June 1,1907	June 1,1913	2,000
Danville	27,871	Lin H. Griffith	1	July 31,1899	July 31,1913	2,700
Decatur	31,140	Harry B. Wilson	1	Sept. —,1907	Sept. —,1913	3,600
De Kalb	8,102	Charles A. McMurry	1	Sept. 1,1911	Sept. 1,1913	4,000
Dixon:						
North side	7,216	H. V. Baldwin	1	—— —,1898	June —,1911	1,500
South side		William R. Snyder	1	July 1,1909	June 30,1913	1,800
Duquoin	5,454	Charles W. Houk	1	Sept. —,1900	May 24,1913	1,800
East St. Louis	58,547	D. Walter Potts	1	Aug. 1,1911	July 31,1913	2,800
Edwardsville	5,014	Charles F. Ford	1	Apr. —,1911	Sept. 1,1913	1,600
Elgin	25,976	Robert I. White	1	July 1,1907	July 1,1913	3,000
Evanston:						
District No. 75	24,978	Homer H. Kingsley	1	—— —,1886	June 30,1913	4,000
District No. 76		Frederick W. Nichols	1	July 1,1885	.....do.......	3,750
Forest Park	6,594	Asa Paul Goddard	1	June —,1906	June —,1913	1,550
Freeport	17,567	Sigel E. Raines	1	Feb. —,1904	June 15,1913	2,500
Galena	4,835	Edward G. Mason	1	Dec. 3,1910	June 10,1913	1,300
Galesburg	22,089	Wm. Lucas Steele	1	Aug. —,1885	June 30,1913	3,000
Granite City	9,903	Louis P. Frohardt	1	Sept. 1,1894	.....do.......	2,400
Harrisburg	5,309	T. O. Elliott	1	June —,1904	May 31,1913	1,500
Harvey	7,227	Frank L. Miller	1	Sept. —,1892	June 30,1913	2,100
Herrin	6,861	Perry H. Hellyer	1	Sept. —,1910	June 8,1913	1,350
Highland Park	4,209	Jesse L. Smith	1	June —,1903	Sept. —,1913	2,500
Hoopeston	4,698	Samuel K. McDowell	1	Feb. 1,1909	June —,1913	2,000
Jacksonville	15,326	William A. Furr	1	July 1,1905	June 1,1913	2,250
Jerseyville	4,113	Joshua Pike	1	—— —,1874	May —,1913	1,800
Joliet	34,670	Edward F. Worst	1	July 1,1909	June 30,1913	4,000
Kankakee	13,986	Franklin N. Tracy	1	July —,1881	.....do.......	2,200
Kewanee	9,307	Robinson G. Jones	1	Sept. —,1907	June 15,1913	3,000
La Grange	5,282	Frank E. Sanford	1	Sept. 1,1890	June 30,1913	3,000
La Salle	11,537	James B. McManus	1	June —,1900	.....do.......	2,200
Lincoln	10,892	Anthony Middleton	1	May —,1908	.....do.......	2,000
Litchfield	5,971	William Hawkes	1	Sept. 1,1912	June 1,1913	1,600
Macomb	5,774	T. M. Birney	....	....	....	....
Madison	5,046	Louis Baer	1	May —,1893	June 1,1912	1,600
Marion	7,093	Eli Gilbert Lentz	1	June —,1910	June 7,1913	1,800
Mattoon	11,456	Gilbert P. Randle	1	—— —,1902	June 30,1913	2,600
Maywood	8,033	John E. Witmer	....	....	....	....
Melrose Park	4,806	(1)	....	....	....	....
Metropolis	4,655	Marcus N. McCartney	1	Apr. —,1910	June 30,1913	1,200
Moline	24,199	Charles H. Maxson	1	Jan. —,1911	.....do.......	2,750
Monmouth	9,128	Charles E. Joiner	1	Jnne —,1909	.....do.......	2,100
Morris	4,563	Edwin D. Martin	1	June 2,1910	June 2,1913	1,850
Mount Carmel	6,934	A. S. Anderson	....	....	....	....
Mount Vernon	8,007	William Miner	1	Sept. 1,1907	June 1,1913	1,600
Murphysboro	7,485	Samuel J. Shomaker	1	Apr. 27,1910	June 30,1913	1,300
Normal	4,024	Exum W. Davis	1	Apr. —,1908	June 1,1913	1,700
Oak Park	19,444	William H. Hatch	1	Apr. —,1892	June 30,1913	4,200

[1] See Maywood.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
ILLINOIS—contd.						
Olney	5,011	Henry W. Hostettler	1	Aug. —, 1911	Aug. —, 1913	$1,500
Ottawa	9,535	Christopher Jos. Byrne	1	July —, 1905	June 30, 1913	2,000
Pana	6,055	George B. Coffman	1	Apr. —, 1912	June —, 1913	1,600
Paris	7,664	Thomas W. B. Everhart	1	—— —, 1912	June 1, 1913	2,000
Pekin	9,897	James J. Crosby	1	Sept. —, 1904	June 15, 1913	1,900
Peoria	66,950	Gerard T. Smith	1	Aug. 1, 1906	July 1, 1912	3,500
Peru	7,984	James R. Hart	1	June 26, 1907	July 1, 1913	1,700
Pontiac	6,090	Arthur Verner	1	Feb. —, 1909	June —, 1912	2,500
Princeton	4,131	Harmon E. Waits	1	June —, 1910	June 6, 1913	1,800
Quincy	36,587	Edward G. Bauman	1	July 1, 1910	July 1, 1913	2,500
Rockford	45,401	Peleg R. Walker	1	July 10, 1884	June 30, 1913	2,500
Rock Island	24,335	Herbert B. Hayden	1	July 20, 1900	July 31, 1913	2,600
St. Charles	4,046	Mary F. McAuley	1	June —, 1911	June —, 1913	1,800
Springfield	51,678	Joseph H. Collins	1	Sept. —, 1888	June 30, 1913	3,000
Spring Valley	7,035	Ernest L. Bost	1	June —, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,500
Staunton	5,048	Wm. Edmund Eccles	1	Sept. —, 1906	May 24, 1912	1,200
Sterling:						
District No. 8	7,467	Annie L. Hill	1	Nov. —, 1903	June 13, 1913	1,400
District No. 11		Henry L. Chaplin	1	—— —, 1894	June —, 1912	1,600
Streator	14,253	James G. Moore	1	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	2,250
Taylorville:						
East side	5,446	Edgar S. Jones	1	Sept. —, 1910	June 1, 1913	1,500
West side		Prentice H. Deffendall	1	June —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,170
Urbana	8,245	A. P. Johnson	1	May 29, 1906	July 31, 1913	2,300
Virden	4,000	Perley M. Silloway	1	Aug. —, 1909	June 7, 1913	1,360
Waukegan	16,069	Oliver S. Thompson	1	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	2,000
West Hammond	4,948	A. G. Deaver	......	....	....	......
Wilmette	4,943	James R. Harper	1	Oct. 9, 1908	June 13, 1913	2,250
Woodstock	4,331	Edward Charles Thomas	1	Jan. 20, 1909	June 14, 1913	1,700
Zion City	4,789	Benjamin G. Hess	1	—— —, 1909	June — 1913	1,150
INDIANA.						
Alexandria	5,096	Arthur L. Trester	1	Nov. 1, 1910	June 1, 1913	1,500
Anderson	22,476	James B. Peary	1	June —, 1895	July 31, 1911	......
Aurora	4,410	James R. Houston	1	Aug. —, 1897	June —, 1913	1,500
Bedford	8,716	Joseph B. Fagan	1	June —, 1906	Aug. 1, 1913	2,000
Bloomington	8,838	Henry L. Smith	3	Aug. 1, 1909	.....do.......	2,700
Bluffton	4,987	Philemon A. Allen	2	Dec. 20, 1906	July 1, 1913	1,800
Brazil	9,340	Chas. C. Coleman	3	May 31, 1907	June 15, 1914	2,300
Clinton	6,229	Edison E. Oberholtzer	2	May 27, 1911	Aug. —, 1913	1,800
Columbus	8,813	Thomas F. Fitzgibbon	3	Aug. 1, 1901	July 31, 1913	2,200
Connersville	7,738	Edwin L. Rickert	1	Aug. 1, 1912	.....do.......	1,850
Crawfordsville	9,371	Linnaeus N. Hines	3	Mar. —, 1908	July 1, 1915	2,500
Decatur	4,471	Elmer E. Rice	1	Aug. 1, 1909	Aug. 1, 1913	1,500
East Chicago	19,098	Edwin N. Canine	1	Aug. 1, 1905	Sept. 1, 1913	2,500
Elkhart	19,282	Ellis H. Drake	3	Apr. 16, 1906	June 30, 1914	2,400
Elwood	11,028	J. L. Clauser	......	....	....	......
Evansville	69,647	James H. Tomlin	1	Mar. 28, 1910	July 31, 1913	3,900
Fort Wayne	63,933	Justin N. Study	3	—— —, 1896	July 1, 1915	4,000
Frankfort	8,634	Oscar M. Pettenger	1	Nov. 1, 1909	July 1, 1913	2,000
Franklin	4,502	Paul Van Riper	2	Sept. —, 1910	June —, 1913	1,800
Garrett	4,149	Francis M. Merica	3	July —, 1905	July 31, 1915	1,600
Gary	16,802	William A. Wirt	3	Oct. —, 1906	July 1, 1915	6,000
Goshen	8,514	Edgar N. Mendenhall	3	Aug. 1, 1911	Aug. 1, 1914	[1] 2,000
Greenfield	4,448	Frank Larrabee	......	....	....	......
Greensburg	5,420	Elmer C. Jerman	1	June —, 1903	July 1, 1912	1,800
Hammond	20,925	Chas. M. McDaniel	......	....	....	......
Hartford City	6,187	William A. Myers	1	Mar. —, 1908	July 31, 1913	1,950
Huntington	10,272	Jesse M. Scudder	2	Sept. 1, 1912	Sept. 1, 1915	1,900
Indianapolis	233,650	Jacob G. Collicott	......	....	....	......
Jeffersonville	10,412	Claytis McH. Marble	3	Feb. 22, 1904	Aug. 1, 1914	1,800
Kendallville	4,981	P. C. Emmons	3	Aug. 1, 1910	.....do.......	2,000
Kokomo	17,010	Alva O. Neal	2	—— —, 1910	—— —, 1913	2,400
Lafayette	20,081	Robert F. Hight	1	Aug. 1, 1904	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500
Laporte	10,525	Arthur C. Deamer	2	Aug. —, 1909	.....do.......	2,400
Lebanon	5,474	Henry G. Brown	1	Apr. 1, 1905	June —, 1913	2,000
Linton	5,906	Joseph H. Haseman	1	Apr. —, 1905	May —, 1913	1.500
Logansport	19,050	Albert H. Douglass	1	Aug. 1, 1891	Aug. 1, 1913	2,400
Madison	6,934	Donald DuShane	1	Aug. 1, 1911	.....do.......	1,800
Marion	19,359	Joe T. Giles	1	Aug. 1, 1908	.....do.......	2,600
Martinsville	4,529	Jeremiah E. Robinson	1	June —, 1901	.....do.......	1,800
Michigan City	19,027	Louis W. Keeler	1	Sept. 1, 1904	Sept. 1, 1914	2,500
Mishawaka	11,886	John F. Nuner	1	Aug. —, 1903	July 31, 1913	2,100
Mount Vernon	5,563	Edgar J. Llewelyn	2	Apr. 24, 1911	June 30, 1914	1,800
Muncie	24,005	Benjamin F. Moore	1	Aug. 1, 1908	Aug. 1, 1913	3,000

[1] $2,100 in 1913-14.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum
INDIANA—contd.						
New Albany	20,629	Harry A. Buerk	2	Sept. 1, 1908	June 1, 1913	$2,400
Newcastle	9,446	Elmer W. Lawrence	3	May —, 1910	June 8, 1913	2,200
Noblesville	5,073	Emmet C. Stopher	2	Aug. —, 1909	July 31, 1913	1,500
Peru	10,910	Hal L. Hall	1	July 1, 1912	July 1, 1913	1,800
Portland	5,130	Grant E. Derbyshire	1	Dec. —, 1905	July 31, 1913	1,750
Princeton	6,448	James W. Stott	1	June 30, 1911	June 30, 1913	2,000
Richmond	22,324	Thomas A. Mott	1	Aug. 1, 1896	Aug. 1, 1912	2,500
Rushville	4,925	Joseph H. Scholl	1	June —, 1904	July 31, 1913	1,620
Seymour	6,305	John A. Linke	1	July —, 1909	—— —, 1913	1,500
Shelbyville	9,500	Jacob W. Holton	2	Nov. 15, 1911	Aug. 1, 1913	2,100
South Bend	53,684	Leslie J. Montgomery	1	Aug. —, 1912	Aug. —, 1913	3,200
Sullivan	4,115	Wilbur R. Curtis	2	Dec. 1, 1911	June 1, 1913	2,000
Terre Haute	58,157	Chas. J. Waits	1	Dec. 12, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	3,000
Tipton	4,075	Chas. F. Patterson	3	—— —, 1905	July 31, 1915	1,500
Valparaiso	6,987	Eugene Skinkle	1	May —, 1912	July —, 1913	1,800
Vincennes	14,895	Robert W. Hamilton	1	Mar. —, 1904	June 30, 1911	2,400
Wabash	8,687	Orville C. Pratt	3	June 10, 1911	June 10, 1914	2,100
Warsaw	4,430	Horace S. Kaufman	1	Aug. —, 1908	Sept. 1, 1913	1,500
Washington	7,854	William F. Axtell	1	Aug. —, 1894	June 30, 1913	2,000
Whiting	6,587	Winfred W. Holliday	1	Dec. 15, 1910	July 1, 1912	2,220
Winchester	4,266	Oscar R. Baker	1	—— —, 1895	Aug. 1, 1913	1,700
IOWA.						
Albia	4,969	Frank T. Vasey	1	June 1, 1910	Sept. —, 1913	1,700
Ames	4,223	Frank W. Hicks	1	May —, 1910	July 1, 1913	1,800
Atlantic	4,560	Charles E. Blodgett	1	June 1, 1907	June 1, 1913	1,700
Boone	10,347	Ernest C. Meredith	1	May —, 1910	June —, 1913	2,000
Burlington	24,324	Whittier L. Hanson	1	July —, 1909	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500
Cedar Falls	5,012	Bruce Francis	1	Sept. —, 1909	June —, 1913	2,100
Cedar Rapids	32,811	Joseph J. McConnell	(1)	Aug. 1, 1901	....	3,000
Centerville	6,936	C. J. Johnson	......	....	....	......
Charles City	5,892	Edwin T. Armstrong	......	....	....	......
Cherokee	4,884	L. H. Maus	1	—— —, 1906	June 1, 1913	2,000
Clinton	25,577	Ozro P. Bostwick	1	July —, 1889	July 31, 1913	2,800
Council Bluffs	29,292	John H. Beveridge	1	Aug. 1, 1908	Aug. 1, 1913	2,800
Creston	6,924	Adam Pickett	1	July 1, 1906	June 30, 1913	1,800
Davenport	43,028	Frank L. Smart	1	July 1, 1907	do	3,600
Des Moines	86,368	William O. Riddell	1	Oct. —, 1904	do	5,000
Dubuque	38,494	James Hugh Harris	1	May 1, 1910	July 1, 1913	3,600
Fairfield	4,970	Otis P. Flower	1	July 1, 1910	June 1, 1913	1,850
Fort Dodge	15,543	Lewis H. Minkel	1	Apr. 1, 1911	do	2,350
Fort Madison	8,900	E. F. Schall	......	....	....	......
Glenwood	4,052	James H. Morgan	1	Aug. —, 1908	May —, 1913	1,600
Grinnell	5,036	Eugene Heneley	1	June —, 1905	July 1, 1913	1,900
Iowa City	10,091	H. E. Blackman	1	May —, 1907	do	2,100
Keokuk	14,008	William Aldrich	1	Mar. —, 1904	do	2,200
Le Mars	4,157	Francis Eber Palmer	1	Mar. —, 1908	June —, 1913	2,000
Marion	4,400	P. M. Carson	......	....	....	......
Marshalltown	13,374	Aaron Palmer	3	Jan. 1, 1907	July 1, 1913	2,300
Mason City	11,230	Hugh M. Gilmore	1	June 1, 1910	June 1, 1913	2,500
Muscatine	16,178	Ira H. McIntire	1	Apr. 5, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,800
Newton	4,616	Harry P. Smith	1	July 1, 1912	do	1,600
Oelwein	6,028	Orris W. Herr	1	Sept. —, 1906	May 31, 1913	1,850
Oskaloosa	9,466	Frank W. Else	1	May —, 1905	July 1, 1913	2,000
Ottumwa	22,012	Albion W. Stuart	1	Sept. —, 1876	June —, 1913	2,500
Perry	4,630	F. L. Mahannah	1	Sept. —, 1912	May —, 1913	1,800
Red Oak	4,830	W. F. Cramer	......	....	....	......
Shenandoah	4,976	Herbert E. Wheeler	1	June —, 1903	June —, 1913	1,900
Sioux City	47,828	Melvin G. Clark	1	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	3,600
Washington	4,380	Albert C. Fuller, jr.	1	June —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,800
Waterloo:						
East side	26,693	Charles W. Kline	......	....	....	......
West side		Anson T. Hukill	1	May —, 1899	June 30, 1913	2,400
Webster City	5,208	D. M. Kelley	......	....	....	......
KANSAS.						
Abilene	4,118	William A. Stacey	2	Jan. 1, 1906	Aug. 1, 1914	1,800
Arkansas City	7,508	John F. Bender	1	Aug. 1, 1907	July 31, 1913	1,800
Atchison	16,429	Nathan T. Veatch	1	....	Aug. 31, 1913	1,800
Chanute	9,272	John F. Hughes	2	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1914	1,850
Cherryvale	4,304	Nathaniel A. Baker	2	July —, 1910	July 1, 1914	1,500
Coffeyville	12,687	A. A. Hughart	......	....	....	......
Concordia	4,415	David C. Porter	1	June 1, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	1,600
Emporia	9,058	Lloyd A. Lowther	2	Nov. —, 1896	do	2,000

[1] Indefinite tenure.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
KANSAS—contd.						
Fort Scott	10,463	Homer D. Ramsey	2	Aug. 1, 1911	Aug. 1, 1914	$2,000
Galena	6,096	Lemuel A. Guthridge	2	June —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,500
Great Bend	4,622	Andrew F. Seuter	2	Aug. 1, 1910	July 31, 1914	2,000
Hutchinson	16,364	Justus Otho Hall	1	July —, 1909	Aug. 1, 1913	2,200
Independence	10,480	Charles S. Risdon	2	June 1, 1901	July 31, 1913	3,000
Iola	9,032	Clydus C. Brown	1	May —, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	1,800
Junction City	5,598	William S. Heusner	2	May —, 1900	do	2,000
Kansas City	82,331	Matthew E. Pearson	1	Aug. 1, 1902	July 31, 1913	3,500
Lawrence	12,374	Franklin P. Smith	2	Nov. —, 1894	Aug. 1, 1913	2,250
Leavenworth	19,363	Mark E. Moore	2	Aug. 12, 1911	Aug. 12, 1913	2,400
Manhattan	5,722	John E. Edgerton	1	July —, 1900	July —, 1913	1,800
Newton	7,862	B. F. Martin	1	May —, 1912	July 31, 1913	1,800
Osawatomie	4,046	Floyd B. Lee	2	—— —, 1907	May —, 1914	1,350
Ottawa	7,650	Arch L. Bell	1	July 1, 1904	Aug. 1, 1913	1,900
Parsons	12,463	Frank L. Piuet	2	June —, 1910	do	2,000
Pittsburg	14,755	Allen H. Bushey	1	May —, 1903	June —, 1913	2,100
Rosedale	5,960	George E. Rose	2	Jan. —, 1904	do	1,600
Salina	9,688	John Lofty				
Topeka	43,684	C. C. Starr				
Wellington	7,034	Charles M. Ware	1	Aug. 1, 1912	July 31, 1913	1,700
Wichita	52,450	L. W. Mayberry				
Winfield	6,700	John W. Spindler	1	July —, 1891	May —, 1913	2,000
KENTUCKY.						
Ashland	8,688	Benjamin F. Stanton	4	Apr. —, 1909	Sept. —, 1914	2,400
Bellevue	6,683	W. P. King	2	Aug. —, 1909	June 30, 1913	2,000
Bowling Green	9,173	Thos. C. Cherry	1	June —, 1905	do	2,000
Covington	53,270	Homer O. Sluss	4	Apr. —, 1907	July 31, 1915	3,000
Danville	5,420	Oscar B. Fallis	1	July 5, 1907	May 30, 1913	1,200
Dayton	6,979	Lewis N. Taylor	1	Sept. 1, 1911	July 31, 1913	1,500
Frankfort	10,465	Hugh C. McGee	1	July 1, 1904	June 30, 1913	1,800
Georgetown	4,533	Jesse C. Waller	1	May —, 1910	May 31, 1913	1,500
Henderson	11,452	James W. Welch	1	June —, 1909	June 30, 1913	2,000
Hopkinsville	9,419	Davis A. Clark	1	Jan. —, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,920
Lexington	35,099	Massillon A. Cassidy	4	—— —, 1886	July 1, 1915	2,400
Louisville	223,928	Ernest O. Holland	4	Jan. 1, 1911	Jan. 1, 1916	5,000
Ludlow	4,163	Welby D. Reynolds	2	Sept. —, 1910	June —, 1913	1,400
Madisonville	4,966	Ralph B. Rubins	1	—— —, 1906	May —, 1913	1,500
Mayfield	5,916	Milton M. Faughender	1	Feb. 26, 1912	July 15, 1913	1,5
Maysville	6,141	James W. Bradner	3	July —, 1908	June 30, 1915	1,800
Middlesboro	7,305	M. Oliver Winfrey				
Newport	30,309	John A. Sharon	2	July 11, 1912	Aug. 5, 1914	2,500
Owensboro	16,011	James H. Risley	1	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	2,400
Paducah	22,760	John A. Carnagey	4	Mar. 1, 1907	July 31, 1914	2,500
Paris	5,859	George W. Chapman	4	Mar. —, 1910	June 30, 1914	1,910
Richmond	5,340	Ditzler W. Bridges	2	July —, 1911	July 1, 1914	1,800
Somerset	4,491	J. P. W. Brouse				
Winchester	7,156	Edward F. Darnaby	1	July 1, 1911	June —, 1913	1,600
LOUISIANA.						
Alexandria	11,213	D. B. Showalter [1]				
Baton Rouge	14,897	H. K. Strickland [1]				
Crowley	5,099	J. H. Lewis [1]				
Donaldsonville	4,090	John L. Rusca [1]				
Houma	5,024	John M. Foote [1]				
LaFayette	6,392	L. J. Alleman [1]				
Lake Charles	11,449	John McNeese				
Monroe	10,209	Ernest L. Neville	1	May 28, 1910	May 31, 1913	2,000
Morgan City	5,477	Charles E. Carnes [2]	1	July 15, 1911	May —, 1913	1,500
New Iberia	7,499	Ralph W. Frame [1]				
New Orleans	339,075	Joseph M. Gwinn	4	Nov. —, 1910	July —, 1913	5,000
Opelousas	4,623	Chas. J. Thompson [1]	4	Aug. 25, 1904	July —, 1913	2,000
Plaquemine	4,955	L. E. Messick [1]				
Shreveport	28,015	C. E. Byrd [1]	4	Jan. —, 1909	July —, 1913	3,600
MAINE.						
Auburn	15,064	Henry H. Randall	1	July 1, 1907	June 30, 1913	2,200
Augusta	13,211	Farnsworth G. Marshall	1	Aug. 1, 1910	Aug. —, 1913	2,000
Bangor	24,803	D. Lyman Wormwood	1	Sept. 1, 1912	Sept. 1, 1913	2,200
Bath	9,396	Frederick W. Freeman	1	Aug. —, 1904	Aug. 31, 1913	1,500
Belfast	4,618	William B. Woodbury	1	May —, 1912	July 1, 1913	1,500
Biddeford	17,079	Harold W. Files	2	Aug. 4, 1911	Aug. 3, 1913	1,600

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[1] Parish superintendent.

[2] Principal.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
MAINE—contd.						
Brewer	5,667	Fred. W. Burrill				
Brunswick	6,621	John Albert Cone	1	Aug. 1, 1909	Aug. 1, 1913	$1,800
Calais	6,116	James Madison Pike	1	Apr. 17, 1909	Apr. 15, 1913	1,400
Eastport	4,961	Reginald F. Harmon	2	Aug. 19, 1912	Sept. 1, 1914	1,500
Fairfield	4,435	Will Osmar Hersey	1	July 1, 1908	Apr. 1, 1913	1,500
Gardiner	5,311	Herbert J. Chase	1	Sept. 1, 1912	Aug. 31, 1913	1,500
Houlton	5,845	William F. Coan	1	Apr. 3, 1909	Apr. 1, 1913	1,800
Lewiston	26,247	D. J. Callahan	1	Oct. —, 1909	July 31, 1913	2,000
Old Town	6,317	Herbert M. Moore	1	July 8, 1912	July 8, 1913	1,700
Portland	58,571	De Forest H. Perkins	1	Aug. 1, 1911	Dec. 31, 1912	2,400
Presque Isle	5,179	Willard O. Chase	1	Aug. 1, 1911	May 4, 1913	1,450
Rockland	8,174	Giles A. Stuart	1	Sept. 1, 1909	Mar. 31, 1913	2,000
Rumford	6,777	W. H. S. Ellingwood	2	May —, 1910	Apr. 1, 1913	1,800
Saco	6,583	Theodore T. Young	1	Sept. —, 1909	Sept. —, 1913	1,200
Sanford	9,049	Isaac A. Smith	2	Apr. 1, 1911	Apr. —, 1913	1,600
Skowhegan	5,341	Leon W. Gerrish	1	Aug. 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	1,700
South Portland	7,471	James O. Kaler	1	Mar. —, 1898	Mar. —, 1913	1,000
Waterville	11,458	Chas. N. Perkins				
Westbrook	8,281	Prescott Keyes	1	July 1, 1908	June —, 1913	2,000
MARYLAND.						
Annapolis	8,609	Samuel Garner[1]	2	Sept. 1, 1908	May 1, 1914	1,500
Baltimore	558,485	Francis A. Soper	([2])	Sept. 1, 1911		5,000
Cambridge	6,407	A. Stengle Marine[1]				
Cumberland	21,839	John T. Edwards[1]				
Frederick	10,411	John T. White[1]				
Frostburg	6,028	Olin R. Rice[3]				
Hagerstown	16,507	Wm. Merrick Huyett[1]	1	Aug. 15, 1911	July 31, 1912	1,800
Havre de Grace	4,212	J. Herbert Owens[1]		Sept. 1, 1909		1,350
Salisbury	6,690	Wm. James Holloway[1]	2	July —, 1908	July 31, 1914	1,600
MASSACHUSETTS.						
Abington	5,455	John E. De Meyer	3	Sept. 1, 1909	July 31, 1915	2,200
Adams	13,026	Francis A. Bagnall	1	Aug. —, 1901	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500
Amesbury	9,894	Charles E. Fish	1	Aug. 1, 1906	do	1,600
Amherst	5,112	Audubon L. Harvey	3	Sept. 1, 1898	Sept. 1, 1915	2,050
Andover	7,301	George M. Bemis	1	Aug. 1, 1911	Aug. 1, 1913	2,000
Arlington	11,187	John F. Scully	1	Oct. 15, 1905	July 1, 1913	2,600
Athol	8,536	Winfield S. Ward	1	Apr. 1, 1897	Sept. 1, 1913	2,000
Attleboro	16,215	Lewis A. Fales	1	Aug. 15, 1905	Aug. 15, 1913	2,300
Barnstable	4,676	George H. Galger		—— —, 1903		1,800
Belmont	5,542	Geo. P. Armstrong	3	Apr. —, 1897	June 30, 1915	2,650
Beverly	18,650	Robert O. Small	1	Sept. —, 1910	Sept. —, 1913	2,700
Blackstone	5,648	Joseph P. McCooey				
Boston	670,585	Franklin B. Dyer	6	July —, 1913	—— —, 1918	10,000
Braintree	8,066	Ralph L. Wiggin	1	Oct. —, 1909	Oct. 1, 1912	1,800
Bridgewater	7,688	([4])				
Brockton	56,878	George L. Farley	1	Aug. —, 1910	June 1, 1913	3,250
Brookline	27,792	George I. Aldrich				
Cambridge	104,839	Michael E. Fitzgerald	1	Sept. —, 1912	Sept. —, 1913	2,900
Canton	4,797	John C. Davis	1	July 1, 1911	Apr. 1, 1913	1,800
Chelmsford	5,010	Benj. E. Martin	1	June —, 1910	July 31, 1913	1,600
Chelsea	32,452	Adelbert L. Safford	1	Sept. 1, 1910	Aug. 31, 1913	2,700
Chicopee	25,401	John C. Gray	1	Aug. —, 1901	July 1, 1913	2,700
Clinton	13,075	Charles L. Hunt	1	June —, 1889	do	2,100
Concord	6,421	Wells A. Hall	([2])	June —, 1907		2,500
Danvers	9,407	Henry C. Sanborn	1	June —, 1907	July 1, 1913	2,000
Dartmouth	4,378	Albert S. Cole	1	Sept. —, 1906	Aug. 31, 1913	1,700
Dedham	9,284	Roderick W. Hine	1	Aug. —, 1893	July 1, 1913	2,200
Dudley	4,267	Ernest W. Robinson				
Easthampton	8,524	William D. Miller	3	Apr —, 1896	June 30, 1915	1,900
Easton	5,139	Philip W. L. Cox	1	June 16, 1911	June 23, 1913	1,600
Everett	33,484	Fairfield Whitney	1	Aug. —, 1910	Aug. 31, 1913	2,500
Fairhaven	5,122	Charles F. Prior	3	Aug. 15, 1912	Aug. 15, 1915	2,100
Fall River	119,295	Everett B. Durfee	1	July 18, 1905	Aug. 31, 1913	3,000
Fitchburg	37,826	Joseph G. Edgerly	1	Sept. 27, 1875	July 31, 1913	2,850
Framingham	12,948	Samuel F. Blodgett	1	—— —, 1896	Sept. 1, 1913	2,200
Franklin	5,641	Jacob H. Carfrey	3	Aug. 1, 1911	Aug 1, 1914	1,800
Gardner	14,699	Frederick S. Pope	1	Sept. —, 1911	Aug. —, 1913	2,100
Gloucester	24,398	Freeman Putney	1	Apr. —, 1888	June —, 1913	2,300
Grafton	5,705	Thos. Hart de Coudres	3	July 25, 1912	Aug. 15, 1915	1,700
Great Barrington	5,926	J. Francis Allison	1	—— —, 1897	Aug. 31, 1913	1,800

[1] County superintendent.
[2] Indefinite tenure.
[3] Principal of high school.
[4] See Abington.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.						
Greenfield	10,427	Winthrop P. Abbott	1	May —,1912	June 30,1913	$2,000
Haverhill	44,115	Christie A. Record				
Hingham	4,965	Nelson G. Howard	1	Aug. 16,1898	Mar. 1,1913	2,550
Holyoke	57,730	Thos. F. McSherry	3	Apr. 2,1912	July 31,1915	3,000
Hudson	6,743	Cassius S. Lyman	3	Aug. 1,1906	do.	2,050
Ipswich	5,777	John P. Marston	1	July 1,1909	June 30,1913	1,500
Lawrence	85,892	Bernard M. Sheridan	1	Apr. 26,1904	Dec. 31,1912	3,500
Lee	4,106	Bion E. Hicks	3	Sept. 1,1909	June 30,1915	1,600
Leominster	17,580	Thomas E. Thompson	(1)	July 1,1895		2,200
Lexington	4,918	Frank H. Damon	(1)	— —,1907		2,500
Lowell	106,294	Hugh J. Molloy				
Ludlow	4,948	Walter E. Gushee	3	July 1,1903	June 30,1915	1,800
Lynn	89,336	Frank J. Peaslee	(1)	Sept. 1,1901		3,000
Malden	44,404	Clarence H. Dempsey	1	Sept. 1,1910	Sept. 1,1913	2,800
Mansfield	5,183	Edward P. Fitts	3	Apr. 9,1891	Apr. —,1915	1,800
Marblehead	7,338	Burr Jay Merriam	1	Aug. 1,1912	July 31,1913	1,800
Marlboro	14,579	Ernest P. Carr	1	— —,1912	Aug. 1,1913	1,900
Maynard	6,390	Francis S. Brick				
Medford	23,150	Fred H. Nickerson				
Melrose	15,715	John C. Anthony	1	Aug. —,1909	July 1,1913	2,700
Methuen	11,448	Edwin L. Haynes	1	July 1,1912	do.	1,800
Middleboro	8,214	Charles H. Bates	1	Oct. —,1901	Aug. 1,1913	2,200
Milford	13,055	Almorin O. Caswell	1	Sept 1,1911	Sept. 1,1913	1,850
Millbury	4,740	C. C. Ferguson	3	Aug. 25,1912	Sept. 1,1915	1,800
Milton	7,924	Frank M. Marsh	1	June —,1912	Aug. 1,1913	2,700
Monson	4,758	Fredk. A. Wheeler	3	Aug. —,1902	July 1,1915	1,800
Montague	6,866	Frank P. Davison	1	Feb 1,1902	June 30,1913	1,800
Natick	9,866	John D. Brooks	1	Sept. 1,1909	July 1,1913	2,000
Needham	5,026	Austin H. Keyes	1	July —,1911	June —,1913	2,300
New Bedford	96,652	Allen P. Keith	1	June —,1908	June 30,1913	4,000
Newburyport	14,949	Edgar L. Willard	(1)	Sept 1,1906		1,800
Newton	39,806	Frank E. Spaulding	1	Sept. 1,1904	Aug. 31,1913	5,000
North Adams	22,019	Isaac F. Hall	1	Sept. 1,1895	Sept. 1,1913	2,500
Northampton	19,431	Fayette K. Congdon	1	Aug. 1,1905	July 31,1913	2,500
North Andover	5,529	Dana P. Daine	1	Sept 13,1911	Sept. 18,1913	2,100
North Attleboro	9,562	Robert J. Fuller	1	July —,1907	Sept. 1,1913	2,075
Northbridge	8,807	Saml A. Melcher	3	— —,1888	Sept. —,1915	2,350
Norwood	8,014	Austin H. Fitts	(1)	Aug. 1,1909		2,100
Orange	5,282	Edward Dixon	1	Sept. 1,1901	July 1,1913	1,700
Palmer	8,610	Clifton H. Hobson	1	July 1,1911	June 30,1913	1,900
Peabody	15,721	Albert Robinson	1	Sept. —,1903	Sept. 1,1913	2,100
Pittsfield	32,121	Claire G. Persons	1	Aug 1,1910	Aug. 1,1913	2,800
Plymouth	12,141	Francis J. Heavens	(1)	Apr. —,1895		2,000
Provincetown	4,369	Frank K. Graves	3	July —,1912	Sept. 1,1915	1,600
Quincy	32,642	Albert L. Barbour	1	Aug. —,1909	Jan. 1,1913	3,400
Randolph	4,301	Fordyce Thos. Reynolds	3	July 1,1911	July 1,1914	1,600
Reading	5,818	Harry T. Watkins	1	— —,1909	Sept. —,1913	3,000
Revere	18,219	Herbert F. Taylor	1	Sept. —,1910	Aug. 31,1913	2,500
Rockland	6,928	William L. Coggins	1	May 12,1905	Sept. 1,1913	1,500
Rockport	4,211	Wm. Francis Eldredge	1	May —,1906	June —,1913	1,400
Salem	43,697	William W. Andrew	1	June 18,1912	Sept. 1,1913	2,500
Saugus	8,047	William F. Sims	1	Aug. 16,1910	Sept. —,1913	1,800
Somerville	77,236	Charles S. Clark	1	Sept. 1,1908	Sept. 1,1913	3,500
Southbridge	12,592	Fred E. Corbin	1	Sept. —,1902	do.	2,250
South Hadley	4,894	Frederick E. Whittemore	3	Apr. 1,1904	Apr. 1,1915	1,750
Spencer	6,740	Charles F. Adams	1	Aug. —,1903	Apr. —,1913	1,600
Springfield	88,926	James H. Van Sickle	1	July —,1911	Jan. —,1913	5,000
Stoneham	7,090	Arthur B. Webber	3	May 1,1910	Sept. —,1914	2,000
Stoughton	6,316	Edward P. Fitts	3	— —,1891	— —,1915	1,800
Swampscott	6,204	Eldredge Smith	2	Sept. 1,1911	Sept. 1,1913	[2] 1,000
Taunton	34,259	Henry W. Harrub	1	July —,1905	Aug. 31,1913	2,500
Uxbridge	4,671	Charles M. Pennell	3	Aug. 13,1911	Sept. 1,1914	1,600
Wakefield	11,404	Willard B. Atwell	1	Aug. —,1911	June 30,1913	1,900
Walpole	4,892	Frederic Wm. Kingman				
Waltham	27,834	Wm. D. Parkinson	(1)	June —,1908		2,500
Ware	8,774	George W. Cox	1	July —,1902	July 1,1913	2,000
Wareham	4,102	Herman N. Knox	1	Jan. 29,1910	do.	1,700
Warren	4,188	Wesley E. Nims	3	May 1,1909	Aug. 1,1915	1,600
Watertown	12,875	Wilfred H. Price	1	Feb. 1,1908	Sept. 1,1913	2,200
Webster	11,509	Ernest Wm. Robinson	3	Aug. 1,1903	Aug. 1,1915	2,200
Wellesley	5,413	William F. Johnson				
Westboro	5,446	Harry C. Waldron	1	Sept. —,1895	Sept. —,1913	1,800
Westfield	16,044	James A. MacDougall	1	Nov. 1,1911	June 30,1913	2,600
West Springfield	9,224	John R. Fansley				

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[1] Indefinite tenure.

[2] For two days a week.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.						
Weymouth	12,895	Parker T. Pearson	1	May 1,1909	May 1,1913	$2,000
Whitman	7,292	Geo. F. Ellinwood	1	July 20,1908	Dec. 31,1912	1,800
Winchendon	5,678	Edwin S. Cobb	3	Sept. 1,1911	Sept. 1,1914	2,000
Winchester	9,309	Schuyler F. Herron	1	Sept. 1,1907	July 31,1913	2,750
Winthrop	10,132	Frank A. Douglas	1	—— —,1897	Aug. 31,1913	2,500
Woburn	15,308	George I. Clapp	3	June —,1903	June 30,1914	2,200
Worcester	145,986	Homer P. Lewis	3	Apr. —,1903	June 1,1915	4,250
MICHIGAN.						
Adrian	10,763	Charles Wm. Mickens	2	June —,1904	June —,1913	2,200
Albion	5,833	William J. McKone	1	—— —,1898	June —,1913	1,700
Alpena	12,706	Le Grand Morell	1	May 8,1912	June —,1913	1,800
Ann Arbor	14,817	Herbert M. Slauson	1	Apr. —,1898	July 1,1913	2,700
Battle Creek	25,267	William G. Coburn	1	Sept. —,1895	June —,1913	2,850
Bay City	45,166	Edgar E. Ferguson	2	Aug. 1,1911	Aug. 1,1913	3,000
Belding	4,119	Frank C. Janes	1	Aug. —,1909	June —,1913	1,500
Benton Harbor	9,185	William R. Wright	1	Sept. —,1905	June 1,1913	2,000
Bessemer	4,583	Charles R. Cobb	1	Sept. —,1911	June —,1913	2,000
Big Rapids	4,519	Edward Whitney	1	July —,1911	July 1,1913	1,500
Boyne City	5,218	Leslie A. Butler	2	Sept. —,1909	June —,1904	1,900
Cadillac	8,375	George A. McGee	3	Mar. 24,1910	July 1,1913	2,050
Calumet	32,845	Edward J. Hall	1	May —,1910	June 30,1913	3,720
Charlotte	4,886	Charles H. Carrick	1	Sept. —,1906	June —,1913	1,900
Cheboygan	6,859	Washington L. Barr	1	Apr. —,1911	June 30,1913	1,500
Coldwater	5,945	Chas. A. Randolph Stone	2	—— —,1911	June —,1914	1,900
Detroit	465,766	Charles E. Chadsey	3	July —,1912	July —,1915	6,000
Dowagiac	5,088	Peter F. McCormick	1	Jan. 12,1912	June 15,1913	1,800
Escanaba	13,194	F. E. King	1	Aug. —,1910	July —,1913	2,500
Flint	38,550	Alvin N. Cody	1	Sept. 1,1904	June 30,1913	2,850
Gladstone	4,211	Edward J. Willman	1	Apr. —,1906	June —,1913	1,700
Grand Haven	5,856	L. H. van den Berg	1	Mar. —,1907	June 30,1913	2,050
Grand Rapids	112,571	Wm. A. Greeson	1	June —,1906	July —,1913	3,750
Greenville	4,045	Chester F. Straight	1	Sept. —,1901	June —,1913	1,800
Hancock	8,981	Eugene La Rowe	1	Feb. 1,1902	June 30,1913	2,400
Hastings	4,383	Warren E. Conkling	1	Sept. 9,1912	June 21,1913	1,700
Highland Park	4,120	Thad J. Knapp	2	Sept. —,1911	July 1,1913	2,500
Hillsdale	5,001	Samuel J. Gier	2	—— —,1900	—— —, 1914	1,700
Holland	10,490	Egbert E. Fell	4	July 1,1910	June 30,1915	2,000
Houghton	5,113	John A. Doelle	1	Sept. —,1903	June 20,1913	2,600
Ionia	5,030	Lewis L. Forsythe	1	Mar. 5,1912	June 1,1913	1,700
Iron Mountain	9,216	Lee E. Amidon	1	July 1,1898	June 30,1913	2,800
Ironwood	12,821	John V. Brennen	1	July 1,1907	do.	2,500
Ishpeming	12,448	E. E. Scribner				
Jackson	31,433	Edward O. Marsh	1	July —,1911	July —,1913	3,000
Kalamazoo	39,437	Shattuck O. Hartwell	1	July 1,1901	June 30,1913	3,250
Lansing	31,229	Edward P. Cummings	1	Feb. —,1907	June —,1913	2,600
Ludington	9,132	Frank E. Millar	3	July —,1908	June —,1913	2,100
Manistee	12,381	Samuel W. Baker	1	—— —,1898	June 30,1913	2,100
Manistique	4,722	Geo. P. Edmonds	1	Sept. —,1910	June —,1913	1,850
Marquette	11,503	Gustav W. Gehrand	1	July 1,1908	June 30,1913	3,000
Marshall	4,236	A. H. Washburn	1	Sept. —,1908	June —,1913	1,500
Menominee	10,507	John N. Davis	1	June —,1911	June 3,1913	2,400
Monroe	6,893	R. C. Smith				
Mount Clemens	7,707	Arthur S. Hudson	1	May —,1909	July —,1913	1,950
Muskegon	24,062	Joseph M. Frost	1	Aug. —,1903	July 1,1913	3,000
Negaunee	8,460	Orr Schurtz	1	Sept. 1,1901	do.	2,200
Niles	5,156	Martin B. Travis	1	May —,1910	June —,1913	1,800
Norway	4,974	George G. Malcolm	1	July 1,1909	July 1,1913	1,900
Owasso	9,639	Marion W. Langman				
Petoskey	4,778	Ernest C. Hartwell	1	Sept. 1,1908	June 20,1913	2,000
Pontiac	14,532	G. L. Jenner				
Port Huron	18,863	Walter F. Lewis	1	Aug. —,1899	June 30,1913	2,400
River Rouge	4,163	Alexander McDonald	1	June —,1909	June —,1913	1,500
Saginaw:						
East side	50,510	Eugene C. Warriner	1	July 1,1899	June 30,1913	3,000
West side		Philipp Huber	1	May —,1903	do.	2,400
St. Joseph	5,936	Ernest P. Clarke	1	July 6,1899	June 1,1913	1,800
Sault Ste. Marie	12,615	Matthew J. Walsh	1	Sept. —,1911	June 30,1913	2,400
Three Rivers	5,072	J. A. Wiggers	3	July —,1911	June —,1914	[1] 1,500
Traverse City	12,115	Leon L. Tyler	2	July 1,1911	July 1,1914	2,200
Wyandotte	8,287	Hiram C. Daley	1	Feb. —,1908	July 1,1913	2,000
Ypsilanti	6,230	Wm. B. Arbaugh	3	Jan. 21,1903	do.	2,000

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[1] Second year, $1,650; third year, $1,800.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
MINNESOTA.						
Albert Lea	6,192	C. C. Baker	1	Apr. —, 1911	June 30, 1913	$2,200
Austin	6,960	George A. Franklin	1	Mar. —, 1906	July 31, 1913	2,500
Bemidji	5,099	William P. Dyer	2	Mar. 1, 1910	—— —, 1913	2,00
Brainerd	8,526	W. C. Cobb	......	......	......	......
Chisholm	7,684	James P. Vaughan	1	May —, 1907	Aug. 31, 1913	3,000
Cloquet	7,031	Peter Olesen	1	Aug. 28, 1909	June 10, 1913	2,300
Crookston	7,559	Aaron B. Hess	1	Apr. —, 1911	May 31, 1913	2,400
Duluth	78,466	Robert E. Denfeld	3	Aug. 1, 1885	July 31, 1914	4,500
Eveleth	7,036	Burton O. Greening	1	Aug. —, 1904	Sept. —, 1913	3,300
Faribault	9,001	John Munroe	......	......	......	......
Fergus Falls	6,887	Ray B. MacLean	1	Apr. —, 1907	June 10, 1913	2,000
Hibbing	8,832	Herbert Blair	1	Apr. 1, 1909	July 1, 1913	3,600
Little Falls	6,078	Frank W. Dobbyn	1	Apr. 15, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,800
Mankato	10,365	Frederick J. Sperry	1	Aug. —, 1909	June —, 1913	2,100
Minneapolis	301,408	Charles M. Jordan	3	July 1, 1892	July —, 1913	5,500
Moorhead	4,840	Herbert R. Edwards	1	Aug. —, 1909	June 1, 1913	2,000
New Ulm	5,648	Henry C. Hess	1	Mar. —, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	2,200
Owatonna	5,658	Wm. B. Thornburgh	1	May —, 1912	June —, 1913	1,900
Red Wing	9,048	John L. Silvernale	1	Jan. 30, 1907	Aug. 1, 1913	2,100
Rochester	7,844	H. A. Johnson	2	June 1, 1912	......	......
St. Cloud	10,600	C. H. Barnes	1	Mar. —, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500
St. Paul	214,744	Milton C. Potter	......	......	June 1, 1914	500
St. Peter	4,176	Bertram M. Cosgrove	1	June 19, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,600
South St. Paul	4,510	D. Edward Hickey	1	June —, 1911	June —, 1913	1,900
Stillwater	10,198	Wm. H. Hollands	2	Aug. —, 1908	July 31, 1912	2,300
Two Harbors	4,990	Harry E. Flynn	2	—— —, 1909	July —, 1914	2,800
Virginia	10,473	Lafayette Bliss	1	Aug. 1, 1904	Aug. 1, 1913	3,250
Willmar	4,135	G. A. Foster	1	July 2, 1911	June —, 1913	1,900
Winona	18,583	Raymond A. Kent	1	Aug. 1, 1911	July 31, 1913	2,500
MISSISSIPPI.						
Biloxi	8,049	R. P. Linfield	......	......	......	......
Brookhaven	5,293	E. B. Allen	......	......	......	......
Clarksdale	4,079	Harvey B. Heidelberg	1	May —, 1905	Aug. —, 1913	2,000
Columbus	8,988	William V. Frierson	3	June 1, 1912	June 1, 1915	1,800
Corinth	5,020	James A. Caldwell	......	Apr. 19, 1911	......	2,000
Greenville	9,610	Eli E. Bass	1	Aug. —, 1884	Aug. —, 1913	2,250
Greenwood	5,836	Chas. E. Saunders	1	Sept. 1, 1896	June 1, 1913	2,200
Gulfport	6,386	Chas. A. Williamson	1	June 1, 1911	Apr. 30, 1913	2,000
Hattiesburg	11,733	Friley B. Woodley	1	June 1, 1901	June 1, 1913	2,400
Jackson	21,262	Edward L. Bailey	3	June 1, 1900	Sept. 1, 1913	2,500
Laurel	8,465	Richard H. Watkins	1	May —, 1907	July 1, 1913	2,250
McComb	6,237	Henry P. Hughes	3	May 1, 1900	June 1, 1914	2,250
Meridian	23,285	David C. Hull	1	Apr. 2, 1912	May 30, 1913	2,750
Natchez	11,791	Jackson H. Owings	1	May 7, 1907	July 1, 1913	2,250
Vicksburg	20,814	John P. Carr	1	Sept. 1, 1906	Sept. 1, 1913	2,100
Water Valley	4,275	W. M. Cox	1	Aug. —, 1911	May 23, 1913	1,500
West Point	4,864	Charles F. Capps	8	Aug. —, 1907	June —, 1913	1,800
Yazoo	6,796	M. Rose	1	May 11, 1905	Apr. 1, 1912	2,250
MISSOURI.						
Aurora	4,148	William H. Moore	1	May —, 1909	June 30, 1913	1,200
Boonville	4,252	M. A. O'Rear	1	May —, 1903	do.	1,800
Brookfield	5,749	J. U. White	......	......	......	......
Cape Girardeau	8,475	G. H. Reavis	......	......	......	......
Carterville	4,539	Worth J. Osburne	2	May 25, 1908	June 30, 1914	1,500
Carthage	9,483	Joseph M. White	1	June 30, 1903	June 30, 1913	2,500
Chillicothe	6,265	Alexander R. Coburn	1	July 1, 1908	do.	2,000
Clinton	4,992	Arthur Lee	1	June 1, 1902	June 1, 1913	1,800
Columbia	9,662	James E. McPherson	1	Aug. 15, 1912	Aug. 15, 1913	1,400
De Soto	4,721	William N. Sellman	1	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	1,400
Flat River	5,112	William L. Johns	1	May —, 1905	do.	1,500
Fulton	5,228	John T. Bush	1	July 3, 1912	May —, 1913	1,300
Hannibal	18,341	Livingtone McCartney	1	July —, 1909	June 30, 1913	2,400
Independence	9,859	William L. C. Palmer	1	May 28, 1901	Aug. 31, 1913	1,800
Jefferson City	11,850	Robert B. D. Simonson	1	Apr. —, 1907	June 30, 1913	1,800
Joplin	32,073	George V. Buchanan	1	May —, 1908	July 1, 1913	3,000
Kansas City	248,381	James M. Greenwood	1	June —, 1874	June 30, 1913	4,500
Kirksville	6,347	Charles Banks	1	Sept. —, 1910	Sept. 1, 1913	1,250
Kirkwood	4,191	M. E. Hard	1	—— —, 1908	June —, 1913	2,200
Lexington	5,242	Burtis McG. Little	1	Feb. 9, 1912	May 31, 1913	1,300
Louisiana	4,454	Robert R. Rowley	1	June —, 1911	Sept. —, 1913	1,350
Maplewood	4,976	William Robertson	1	Apr. —, 1908	July 1, 1913	2,400
Marshall	4,869	Lothrop J. Hall	1	July 12, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	1,800
Maryville	4,762	Charles A. Hawkins	1	Jan. —, 1904	May —, 1913	1,650

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
MISSOURI—contd.						
Mexico	5,939	Herbert Pryor	1	Apr. —, 1912	May —, 1913	$1,800
Moberly	10,923	J. C. Lilly	......	....	....	......
Monett	4,177	Monte J. Hale	1	June —, 1912	May 20, 1913	1,200
Nevada	7,176	Frederick H. Barbee	1	Apr. 23, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,800
Poplar Bluff	6,916	William L. Barrett	2	June —, 1905	Sept. 1, 1913	2,000
St. Charles	9,437	Joseph Herring	......	....	....	......
St. Joseph	77,403	John A. Whiteford	2	May 4, 1904	June 30, 1914	3,600
St. Louis	687,029	Ben Blewett	4	June —, 1908	June —, 1916	8,000
Sedalia	17,822	John P. Gass	1	July 1, 1908	July 1, 1913	2,400
Springfield	35,201	Jonathan Fairbanks	1	May —, 1875	May —, 1913	2,250
Trenton	5,656	Geo. H. Beasley	......	....	July 1, 1913	1,650
Warrensburg	4,689	Edward Beatty	2	July 1, 1909	June 30, 1913	1,320
Webb City	11,817	Charles A. Greene	1	Apr. 12, 1912	June 15, 1913	1,800
Webster Groves	7,080	William D. Grove	1	Aug. 14, 1902	June 30, 1913	2,400
Wellston	7,312	E. F. Bush	......	....	....	......
MONTANA.						
Anaconda	10,134	William K. Dwyer	......	—— —, 1906	....	......
Billings	10,031	Ward H. Nye	2	May —, 1908	Aug. 1, 1913	3,000
Bozeman	5,107	Risdon J. Cunningham	3	Jan. 1, 1905	June 10, 1914	2,500
Butte	39,165	George F. Downer	3	June —, 1910	Aug. 1, 1914	4,000
Great Falls	13,948	Samuel D. Largent	3	Apr. —, 1911	Sept. 1, 1914	3,500
Helena	12,515	John Dietrich	......	June 1, 1910	....	......
Kalispell	5,549	Wm. D. Swetlands	3	Aug. —, 1904	July —, 1915	2,500
Livingston	5,359	Benjamin A. Winans	1	Apr. —, 1911	May 31, 1913	2,500
Miles City	4,697	J. Archie Burger	1	May 1, 1909	Aug. 1, 1913	3,000
Missoula	12,869	J. Ulysses Williams	3	Aug. 1, 1906	Aug. 1, 1915	3,000
Red Lodge	4,860	Alfred C. Carlson	1	June —, 1909	June —, 1913	2,000
NEBRASKA.						
Beatrice	9,356	Edwin J. Bodwell	3	Aug. 1, 1908	Aug. 1, 1915	[1] 2,200
Columbus	5,014	R. M. Campbell	......	....	....	......
Fairbury	5,294	Anson L. Caviness	3	Aug. —, 1900	Aug. 15, 1915	1,800
Fremont	8,718	Archibald H. Waterhouse.	3	Apr. —, 1908	June 30, 1914	3,000
Grand Island	10,326	Robert J. Barr	3	Aug. —, 1882	July —, 1915	2,100
Hastings	9,338	Clinton M. Barr	1	June 1, 1911	June 1, 1913	2,200
Kearney	6,202	Roy E. Cochran	1	Aug. 19, 1912	June 7, 1913	1,700
Lincoln	43,973	Fred M. Hunter	(2)	July 22, 1912	....	3,000
Nebraska City	5,488	George E. Martin	1	June 1, 1908	June 1, 1913	2,100
Norfolk	6,025	Merton E. Crosier	1	June —, 1911	June 30, 1913	1,800
North Platte	4,793	Wilson Tout	1	Sept. 1, 1908	Sept. 1, 1913	1,800
Omaha	124,096	Ellis U. Graff	3	Aug. 1, 1911	Aug. 1, 1914	4,200
Plattsmouth	4,287	N. C. Abbott	1	Jan. 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	1,750
South Omaha	26,259	Nathaniel M. Graham	3	Feb. 7, 1907	July 1, 1913	3,000
York	6,235	Walter W. Stoner	3	—— —, 1903	June 30, 1914	2,400
NEVADA.						
Goldfield	4,838	Samuel H. Thompson	1	Aug. 1, 1911	July 31, 1913	3,000
Reno	10,867	Benson D. Billinghurst	4	July 1, 1908	June 30, 1913	3,000
NEW HAMPSHIRE.						
Berlin	11,780	George H. Whitcher	3	Jan. 1, 1904	Jan. —, 1914	2,400
Claremont	7,529	Wm. H. Cummings	1	Aug. 9, 1905	Sept. 1, 1913	1,950
Concord:						
Union District	21,497	Louis J. Rundlett	1	Aug. 1, 1885	Aug. 1, 1913	2,300
Penacook District.		George W. Sumner	1	Aug. 1, 1912	July 31, 1913	2,000
Derry	5,123	Arthur W. Reynolds	1	July —, 1909	Aug. 31, 1913	1,400
Dover	13,247	Ernest W. Butterfield	1	July 1, 1911	Feb. 13, 1913	2,000
Exeter	4,897	(3)	......	....	....	......
Franklin	6,132	William H. Slayton	1	Sept. —, 1907	Aug. —, 1913	1,600
Keene	10,068	George A. Keith	1	July 1, 1905	June 30, 1913	1,500
Laconia	10,183	Joseph H. Blaisdell	......	....	....	......
Lebanon	5,718	Frank Y. Hess[4]	1	July 15, 1910	June —, 1913	1,450
Littleton	4,069	David F. Carpenter	1	.....do.....	July 15, 1913	1,400
Manchester	70,063	Charles W. Bickford	2	July 1, 1900	June 30, 1914	3,000
Nashua	26,005	James H. Fassett	1	Apr. —, 1893	June 1, 1913	2,200
Portsmouth	11,269	James N. Pringle	1	Jan. 2, 1912	July 1, 1913	1,800
Rochester	8,868	Everett A. Pugsley	......	....	....	......
Somersworth	6,704	Frank S. Sutcliffe	......	....	....	......

[1] Second year, $2,300; third year, $2,400.

[2] Indefinite tenure.

[3] No superintendent.

[4] Principal of high school.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
NEW JERSEY.						
Asbury Park	10,150	Fred S. Shepherd	5	Sept. 1,1899	Sept. 1,1913	$3,200
Atlantic City	46,150	Charles B. Boyer				
Bayonne	55,545	John W. Carr	3	Jan. —,1909	Aug. 31,1913	5,000
Bloomfield	15,070	George Morris	4	Dec. 1,1904	June 30,1913	3,800
Boonton	4,930	Milo P. Reagle [1]	1	Sept. —,1903	June —,1913	1,800
Bordentown	4,250	Harry V. Holloway	1	Apr. 4,1910	June 15,1913	1,400
Bridgeton	14,209	H. J. Neal	3	July 1,1909	June 30,1914	2,000
Burlington	8,336	Wilbur Watts				
Camden	94,538	James E. Bryan	3	—— —,1899	Dec. 31,1913	3,750
Collingswood	4,795	Amos H. Flake [1]	1	Sept. —,1907	June 20,1913	2,000
Dover	7,468	Wildy V. Singer	1	July 1,1908	June 30,1913	2,200
East Orange	34,371	Vernon L. Davey	(2)	June —,1890		4,500
East Rutherford	4,275	Francis J. Oglee [1]	(2)	Sept. —,1896		1,800
Elizabeth	73,409	Richard E. Clement	7	July 2,1907	June 30,1914	4,000
Englewood	9,924	Elmer C. Sherman	3	July 1,1904	do	3,500
Fort Lee	4,472	Leonidas H. Van Syckle [1]	1	Sept. 1,1907	June —,1913	1,400
Garfield	10,213	William H. Steeger [1]	3	Sept. — 1907	June 30,1915	2,200
Gloucester	9,462	Wilbur F. Burns				
Guttenberg	5,647	Isaiah G. Miller	1	—— —,1907	July —,1913	2,400
Hackensack	14,050	William E. Stark	1	May —,1911	Sept. 1,1913	3,500
Haddonfield	4,142	Chas. E. Dechaut [1]	1	Sept. —,1907	June 7,1913	1,900
Hammonton	5,088	Newton C. Holdridge [1]	1	Sept. —,1897	—— —,1913	2,000
Harrison	14,498	James F. Prendergast				
Hoboken	70,324	Abraham J. Demarest	(2)	Apr. 17,1897		4,000
Irvington	11,877	Frank H. Morrell	1	Sept. —,1875	June 30,1913	2,500
Jersey City	267,779	Henry Snyder	(2)	May 19,1892		6,000
Kearney	18,659	Herman Dressel, jr.				
Lambertville	4,657	Howard G. Dibble [1]	1	July 24,1912	June 27,1913	1,600
Lodi	4,138	Edgar F. Bunce [1]	1	Mar. —,1910	June 15,1913	1,500
Long Branch	13,298	Christopher Gregory	(2)	Feb. —,1889		3,700
Madison	4,658	William Whitney				
Millville	12,451	F. A. Ebert	1	July —,1911	July —,1913	2,000
Montclair	21,550	Don C. Bliss	1	Aug. 1,1912	July 31,1913	6,000
Morristown	12,507	J. Burton Wiley				
Newark	347,469	Addison B. Poland	(2)	Mar. 1,1901		6,000
New Brunswick	23,388	George H. Eckels	3	July —,1910	July —,1914	3,500
Newton	4,467	Howard E. Shimer [1]	1	July 1,1910	June 30,1913	2,000
North Bergen	15,662	Milton F. Husted	(2)	Dec. 1,1906		2,400
North Plainfield	6,117	Arthur B. Vassler [1]	1	May 1,1912	June —,1913	
Nutley	6,009	John R. Beachler	3	June —,1910	—— —,1914	3,250
Orange	29,630	James N. Muir				
Passaic	54,773	Ulysses G. Wheeler	3	July —,1910	Sept. —,1915	4,000
Paterson	125,600	John R. Wilson	(2)	Sept. —,1906		3,600
Perth Amboy	32,121	Samuel E. Shull	(2)	Sept. —,1895		3,500
Phillipsburg	13,903	Lewis O. Beers	3	Sept. —,1906	Apr. —,1914	1,700
Plainfield	20,550	Henry M. Maxson	(2)	—— —,1892		4,250
Pleasantville	4,390	C. W. Hean [1]				
Princeton	5,136	Mabel T. Vanderbilt [1]	(2)	Feb. —,1906		1,800
Rahway	9,337	William J. Bicket	(2)	Sept. —,1906		3,000
Red Bank	7,398	George B. Harten				
Ridgewood	5,416	Ira W. Travell	1	July 1,1912	June 30,1913	3,250
Roosevelt	5,786	B. V. Herman				
Rutherford	7,045	John Vanatta [1]				
Salem	6,614	Oscar O. Barr	1	Aug. 6,1909	do	1,800
Secaucus	4,740	Robert L. Saunders [1]	(2)	Sept. —,1905		1,550
Somerville	5,060	Wm. Alfred Ackerman [1]	(2)	May —,1905		2,500
South Amboy	7,007	Russel M. Fitch [1]	1	Nov. —,1895	June 30,1913	1,500
South Orange	6,014	Henry W. Foster [1]	5	June —,1900	June 30,1914	3,400
South River	4,772	Francis P. O'Brien [1]	1	Oct. —,1909	June 30,1913	1,500
Summit	7,500	Clinton S. Marsh	3	July 1,1910	June 30,1915	3,500
Town of Union	21,023	Nathan C. Billings				
Trenton	96,815	Ebenezer Mackey	(2)	Sept. —,1902		3,600
Vineland	5,282	Jacob J. Unger [1]	1	June —,1897	June 30,1913	1,900
Weehawken	11,228	Cora E. Fiske [1]	(2)	Sept. —,1901		1,900
Westfield	6,420	J. J. Savitz				
West Hoboken	35,403	M. H. Kinsley				
West New York	13,560	H. Whitford Maxson [1]	1	July —,1910	June 30,1913	2,300
West Orange	10,980	Allton H. Sherman	(2)	Sept. —,1904		3,200
Woodbury	4,642	Henry C. Dixon [1]	1	Sept. —,1906	June —,1913	2,250
NEW MEXICO.						
Albuquerque	11,020	John Milne	1	Sept. 1,1911	Aug. 29,1913	2,100
Raton	4,539	Thomas W. Conway	1	June 28,1908	June —,1913	1,800
Roswell	6,172	Marcellus H. Brasher	1	July 1,1907	June 30,1913	2,000
Santa Fe	5,072	J. Howard Wagner				

[1] Supervising principal.

[2] Indefinite tenure.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
NEW YORK.						
Albany	100,253	C. Edward Jones	2	Sept. 16, 1912		$3,000
Albion	5,016	Willis G. Carmer	1	Aug. 1, 1899	Aug. 1, 1913	1,900
Amsterdam	31,267	Harrison T. Morrow	3	Aug. 1, 1900	July 31, 1915	3,500
Auburn	34,668	Henry D. Hervey	(1)	July 20, 1910		3,500
Ballston Spa	4,138	William A. Andrews[2]	1	Apr. —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,600
Batavia	11,613	John Kennedy				
Binghamton	48,443	Daniel J. Kelly	1	Apr. 22, 1912	July 31, 1913	3,000
Buffalo	423,715	Henry P. Emerson	4	Jan. 1, 1893	Dec. 31, 1915	7,500
Canandaigua	7,217	Luther N. Steele	1	Aug. 1, 1907	July 31, 1913	2,500
Catskill	5,296	E. C. Hocmer	1	—— —, 1912	Sept. —, 1913	1,800
Cohoes	24,709	Edward Hayward	4	July 1, 1901	July 1, 1913	2,000
Corning:						
District No. 9	13,730	Hannibal H. Chapman	1	Sept. 1, 1909	Aug. 1, 1913	2,750
District No. 13		A. M. Blodgett				
Cortland	11,504	Ferdinand E. Smith	3	June —, 1896	Aug. 1, 1915	2,500
Dunkirk	17,221	Delmer E. Batcheller	1	Aug. —, 1908	July 31, 1913	2,500
Elmira	37,176	Asher J. Jacoby	(1)	May —, 1912		4,000
Fredonia	5,285	William B. Blaisdell	1	May —, 1906	July 1, 1911	1,200
Freeport	4,836	Ward C. Moon	2	Jan. —, 1912	June 30, 1914	2,600
Fulton	10,480	James R. Fairgrieve	2	Jan. 1, 1904	Dec. 31, 1913	2,400
Geneva	12,446	Wm. H. Truesdale	(1)	June —, 1891		2,600
Glens Falls	15,243	E. W. Griffith				
Gloversville	20,642	James A. Estee	1	July —, 1890	July 31, 1913	2,800
Gouverneur	4,128	G. Carl Alverson[2]	1		July —, 1913	1,700
Hastings upon Hudson.	4,552	Wm. W. Bullock[2]	1	Sept. —, 1912	June —, 1913	2,000
Haverstraw	5,669	Luther O. Markham	1	—— —, 1898	July 31, 1913	2,000
Hempstead	4,964	Ira M. Gast	1	Apr. —, 1912	June —, 1913	2,100
Herkimer	7,520	George M. Elmendorf				
Hoosick Falls	5,532	Clyde L. Harvey	1	May —, 1905	July 31, 1913	1,800
Hornell	13,617	Elmer S. Redman	1	Aug. 1, 1898	do	2,600
Hudson	11,417	Chas. S. Williams				
Hudson Falls	5,189	Frances A. Tefft	1	Jan. —, 1905	July 31, 1913	1,600
Ilion	6,588	Harwood M. Schwartz	1	Apr. 1, 1911	Aug. 1, 1913	1,800
Ithaca	14,802	Frank D. Boynton	5	June —, 1900	July 31, 1915	3,600
Jamestown	31,297	Rovillus R. Rogers	3	Mar. —, 1890	July 1, 1914	3,000
Johnstown	10,447	Erle L. Ackley	3	Aug. 1, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	2,200
Kingston	25,908	Myron J. Michael	(1)	do		
Lackawanna	14,549	Albert E. Cook	3	Mar. —, 1905	June 2, 1915	2,100
Lancaster	4,364	P. J. Zeilman[2]	1	Sept. —, 1910	June, —, 1913	1,700
Lansingburg		Neil K. White				
Little Falls	12,273	John A. De Camp	1	June 28, 1910	Sept. 1, 1913	2,200
Lockport	17,970	Emmet Belknap	1	June —, 1889	Aug. 31, 1913	2,400
Lyons	4,460	Worthy H. Kinney[2]	1	Sept. —, 1888	June —, 1913	1,800
Malone	6,467	Robert M. Northrup	1	May —, 1911	June 23, 1913	1,600
Mamaroneck	5,699	George J. McAndrew	1	May —, 1902	Sept. —, 1913	2,400
Matteawan	6,727	Leon J. Argetsinger[2]	1	Sept. 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	1,600
Mechanicsville	6,634	Ambrose J. Fry	1	Apr. 1, 1912	do	1,500
Medina	5,683	Paul R. Merriman	1	—— —, 1912	June 24, 1913	1,600
Middletown	15,313	James F. Tuthill	1	—— —, 1901	Sept. —, 1913	2,600
Mount Vernon	30,919	Edwin C. Broome	(1)	Mar. 1, 1909		4,200
Newark	6,227	William M. Fort	1	Aug. —, 1907	July 31, 1913	1,800
Newburgh	27,805	James M. Crane	1	Mar. 1, 1901	—— —, 1913	2,500
New Rochelle	28,867	Albert Leonard	(1)	Mar. —, 1907		4,500
New York	4,766,883	William H. Maxwell	6	Mar. 14, 1898	Mar. 14, 1916	10,000
Niagara Falls	30,445	Reuben A. Taylor	(1)	Aug. 1, 1901		3,200
North Tarrytown	5,421	Charles A. Benedict	1	Aug. 1, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	2,200
North Tonawanda	11,955	Richard A. Searing	(1)	Apr. —, 1904		2,600
Norwich	7,422	Stanford J. Gibson				
Nyack	4,619	Edward J. Bonner	1	Mar. 20, 1908	July 1, 1913	2,500
Ogdensburg	15,933	Horace H. Southwick	3	Sept. 1, 1902	Sept. —, 1914	2,100
Olean	14,743	Samuel J. Slawson	1	Feb. —, 1907	July 31, 1913	2,700
Oneida	8,317	Burton M. Gould	1	June 1, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	1,800
Oneonta	9,491	George J. Dann	1	Apr. 1, 1910	July 31, 1913	2,100
Ossining	11,480	William H. Ryan	4	—— —, 1903	June —, 1913	2,500
Oswego	23,368	Chas. W. Richards		Aug. 1, 1910	July 1, 1912	1,800
Owego	4,633	Isaac S. Carroll	1	Aug. —, 1908	July 31, 1913	1,600
Peekskill:						
District No. 7	15,245	Walter H. Young	1	May 3, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	2,400
District No. 8		Alexander D. Dunbar	(1)	—— —, 1886		2,200
Penn Yan	4,597	N. Winton Palmer	1	Jan. 1, 1906	July 31, 1913	1,200
Perry	4,388	Wm. H. McClelland[2]	1	Sept. —, 1906	June 22, 1906	1,800
Plattsburg	11,138	Frank K. Watson	1	Oct. —, 1905	July 31, 1913	2,000
Port Chester	12,809	Edgar G. Lantman	3	Sept. —, 1898	July 1, 1913	3,250

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[1] Indefinite tenure.

[2] Supervising principal.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
NEW YORK—con.						
Port Jervis	9,564	Lincoln J. Roys	(1)	Jan. —, 1911		$1,900
Potsdam	4,036	Harley A. Miner	1	June —, 1912	June —, 1913	1,000
Poughkeepsie	27,936	S. R. Shear	(1)	Aug. 1, 1910		3,000
Rensselaer	10,711	Arthur Z. Boothby	2	Feb. 1, 1911	June 26, 1913	1,800
Rochester	218,149	Herbert S. Weet	4	June —, 1911	July 1, 1915	5,000
Rome	20,497	George R. Staley	1	May 9, 1912	July 31, 1913	2,200
Salamanca	5,792	Thomas S. Bell	1	—— —, 1892	June —, 1913	2,000
Saranac Lake	4,983	H. V. Littell	1	Aug. —, 1912	Aug. —, 1913	2,000
Saratoga Springs	12,693	Thos. R. Kneil	(1)	Sept. —, 1892		2,250
Schenectady	72,826	A. R. Brubacher	(1)	June —, 1908		3,700
Seneca Falls	6,588	Fredk. J. Medden	1	Oct. 1, 1908	Sept. 1, 1913	1,730
Solvay	5,139	Charles O. Richards	1	Sept. —, 1886	July —, 1913	2,000
Syracuse	137,249	Percy M. Hughes	4	Mar. 1, 1912	Dec. —, 1915	4,000
Tarrytown	5,600	Leslie V. Case	1	May —, 1900	Sept. —, 1913	2,600
Tonawanda	8,290	Frank K. Sutley	3	—— —, 1904	Sept. —, 1914	2,500
Troy	76,813	William A. Dunne [2]	(1)	Feb. 9, 1912		3,000
Utica	74,419	Wilbur B. Sprague	(1)	Aug. 1, 1909		4,000
Walden	4,004	Ezra W. Benedict [3]	1	June —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,800
Watertown	26,730	Frank S. Tisdale	1	Aug. 1, 1900	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500
Watervliet	15,074	Hugh H. Lansing				
Waverly	4,855	P. C. Meserve	1	Sept. 1, 1909	June 30, 1913	1,700
Wellsville	4,382	Howard G. Burdge	1	Feb. 1, 1907	July 1, 1913	2,000
Whitehall	4,917	Willard W. Andrews	1	May —, 1912	do	1,800
White Plains	15,949	John W. Lumbard	1	Aug. 1, 1912	July 31, 1913	4,000
Yonkers	79,803	Charles E. Gorton	(1)	Nov. —, 1883		5,000
NORTH CAROLINA.						
Asheville	18,762	Richard J. Tighe	1	Aug. —, 1900	Aug. 31, 1913	2,400
Burlington	4,808	Geo. C. Singletary	1	Aug. —, 1910	Aug. 1, 1913	1,500
Charlotte	34,014	Alexander Graham				
Concord	8,715	Albert S. Webb	1	July 1, 1910	June 30, 1913	1,450
Durham	18,241	Ernest J. Greene	1	Jan. 1, 1911	June 1, 1913	2,100
Elizabeth City	8,412	Samuel L. Sheep				
Fayetteville	7,045	W. S. Snipes				
Gastonia	5,759	Joe S. Wray	1	Aug. —, 1901	May 31, 1913	1,600
Goldsboro	6,107	Edwin D. Pusey	1	May 6, 1912	July 31, 1913	1,500
Greensboro	15,895	James L. Mann				
Greenville	4,101	H. B. Smith				
Henderson	4,503	John T. Alderman	1	Aug. 25, 1899	June 29, 1913	1,800
High Point	9,525	Thornwell Haynes				
Kinston	6,995	Saml. B. Underwood	1	May —, 1911	May 31, 1913	1,850
Lexington	4,163	O. V. Woosley	1	May 2, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,200
Monroe	4,082	Arthur G. Randolph	1	May —, 1911	May 31, 1913	1,500
Newbern	9,961	Harvey B. Craven	1	Sept. —, 1904	June 30, 1913	1,800
Raleigh	19,218	Francis M. Harper	1	July 1, 1907	do	2,250
Reidsville	4,828	Thos. W. Andrews	1	Sept. 1, 1911	do	1,200
Rocky Mount	8,051	John Lory Harris				
Salisbury	7,153	Arch T. Allen	1	July 4, 1910	June 30, 1913	1,500
Statesville	4,599	D. Matt. Thompson				
Tarboro	4,129	Robert G. Kittrell	1	June 12, 1912	June 15, 1913	1,500
Washington	6,211	Nathan C. Newbold	1	July 29, 1908	June 30, 1913	2,100
Wilmington	25,748	John Jay Blair				
Wilson	6,717	Charles Lee Coon	1	July 1, 1907	June 30, 1913	1,800
Winston-Salem	17,167	Rowland H. Latham	1	June —, 1910	June 1, 1913	2,000
NORTH DAKOTA.						
Bismarck	5,443	Charles C. Root	1	July —, 1910	July 1, 1913	1,900
Devils Lake	5,157	Youell G. Barnell	1	Mar. —, 1911	May 31, 1913	2,000
Fargo	14,331	William E. Hoover	1	Feb. 15, 1906	July 31, 1913	3,000
Grand Forks	12,478	J. Nelson Kelly	1	—— —, 1894	June —, 1913	3,500
Jamestown	4,358	Ezra R. Edwards	1	May 1, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,900
Minot	6,188	Samuel H. Wolf	3	June 1, 1900	July 31, 1915	2,200
Valley City	4,606	George W. Hanna				
OHIO.						
Akron	69,067	H. V. Hotchkiss	5	July —, 1900	Aug. 31, 1915	4,000
Alliance	15,083	Harvey L. Eby	2	June —, 1910	Aug. 31, 1914	2,100
Ashland	6,795	John A. McDowell	3	Sept. 4, 1908	Sept. 1, 1915	2,000
Ashtabula	18,266	H. C. Dietrich				
Athens	5,463	Beverly Oden Skinner	5	July 5, 1907	Sept. 1, 1917	1,800
Barberton	9,410	James M. Carr	4	July —, 1906	July —, 1915	2,000
Barnesville	4,233	William R. Butcher	2	May —, 1907	Sept. —, 1913	1,600

[1] Indefinite tenure.
[2] Acting superintendent.
[3] Supervising principal.

IV.—Superintendents in Cities and Towns of 4,000 Population and Over—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
OHIO—continued.						
Bellaire	12,946	John A. Jackson	3	June —, 1911	July 1, 1915	$2,000
Bellefontaine	8,238	J. W. McKinnon				
Bellevue	5,209	Ellis F. Warner		Sept. —, 1886		
Bowling Green	5,222	Walter F. Shaw	2	July 24, 1911	Sept. —, 1914	1,600
Bucyrus	8,122	Wm. N. Beetham	3	July —, 1907	July —, 1913	1,850
Cambridge	11,327	E. E. Miller				
Canal Dover	6,621	Franklin P. Geiger	3	—— —, 1902	Aug. 1, 1915	[1] 2,100
Canton	50,217	John K. Baxter	4	July 1, 1905	Aug. 31, 1916	3,200
Chillicothe	14,508	Fred. C. Kirkendall	3	July —, 1908	July —, 1914	2,200
Cincinnati	363,591	Randall J. Condon				10,000
Circleville	6,744	William E. Sealock	1	May 17, 1908	Aug. 31, 1913	2,000
Cleveland	560,663	J. M. H. Frederick	3	June 8, 1912	Aug. 31, 1915	6,000
Columbus	181,511	Jacob A. Shawan		July 1, 1889		
Conneaut	8,319	E. D. Williamson	1	May —, 1912	Aug. 31, 1913	1,800
Coshocton	9,603	C. E. Bryant				
Cuyahoga Falls	4,020	William H. Richardson	3	July —, 1910	July 1, 1914	1,600
Dayton	116,577	Edwin J. Brown	5	Aug. 28, 1908	Aug. 31, 1916	5,000
Defiance	7,327	Henry B. Mullholand	4	Feb. 20, 1909	Sept. 1, 1913	1,650
Delaware	9,076	Wm. McKendree Vance	4	Sept. 1, 1906	Aug. 31, 1913	2,200
Delphos	5,038	I. F. Motteson	2	Mar. 1, 1912	Sept. 1, 1914	[2] 1,600
Dennison	4,008	W. H. Angel				
East Cleveland	9,179	William H. Kirk	5	July —, 1891	June 1, 1913	3,600
East Liverpool	20,387	Fred H. Warren	4	May —, 1908	Sept. 1, 1913	2,500
Elyria	14,825	Wm. R. Comings	5	—— —, 1900	July —, 1913	2,500
Findlay	14,858	John F. Smith	2	Mar. 23, 1909	June 1, 1914	2,200
Fostoria	9,597	Rolland W. Solomon	3	June —, 1908	June —, 1915	2,100
Fremont	9,939	J. E. Collins	3	—— —, 1906	—— —, 1913	2,000
Galion	7,214	Isaac C. Guinther	3	Sept. —, 1896	Sept. 1, 1915	1,950
Gallipolis	5,560	Harvey E. Conard	2	July 1, 1905	July 1, 1914	1,800
Greenfield	4,228	Ezekiel W. Patterson				
Greenville	6,237	James J. Martz	1	Apr. 7, 1908	July 1, 1913	1,800
Hamilton	35,279	Darrell Joyce	4	Aug. 6, 1903	Aug. 6, 1915	[3] 3,100
Hillsboro	4,296	William E. Arter	3	June —, 1908	June —, 1914	1,500
Ironton	13,147	James T. Begg	4	May —, 1910	Sept. 1, 1915	2,400
Jackson	5,468	James E. Kinnison	5	June —, 1881	Sept. —, 1916	1,700
Kent	4,488	William A. Walls	2	June —, 1910	June —, 1913	1,750
Kenton	7,185	N. E. Hutchinson				
Lakewood	15,181	Charles P. Lynch	3	Apr. —, 1912	Apr. —, 1914	3,600
Lancaster	13,093	S. Herrick Layton	2	Apr. 25, 1911	July 1, 1913	2,000
Lima	30,508	John Davison	5	June 14, 1905	June 15, 1915	3,000
Logan	4,850	G. Otto Grady	3	May 7, 1909	Sept. 1, 1913	1,500
Lorain	28,883	Albert C. Eldredge	5	May —, 1905	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500
Madisonville	5,193	Charles M. Merry				
Mansfield	20,768	Henry H. Helter	4	—— —, 1907	—— —, 1913	2,500
Marietta	12,923	Jesse V. McMillan	5	—— —, 1902	Aug. —, 1916	2,400
Marion	18,232	Henry A. Hartman				
Martins Ferry	9,133	Guy W. Finch	2	May —, 1911	Sept. —, 1913	2,000
Massillon	13,879	Lewis E. York	2	Apr. —, 1911	do	2,100
Miamisburg	4,271	Wm. T. Trump	3	June —, 1906	do	2,200
Middletown	13,152	N. D. O. Wilson				
Mingo Junction	4,049	Frank Linton	3	—— —, 1908	July 1, 1915	1,800
Mount Vernon	9,087	John S. Alan	3	Jan. —, 1907	Sept. 1, 1913	2,000
Nelsonville	6,082	Edwin H. Kuhn	3	May —, 1912	—— —, 1915	1,600
Newark	25,404	Wilson Hawkins	2	July 1, 1911	July 1, 1913	2,500
New Philadelphia	8,542	Chas. F. Limbach	2	Aug. 20, 1912	Sept. 1, 1914	[4] 1,800
Niles	8,361	W. C. Campbell	3	June 1, 1910	June 1, 1915	2,500
Norwalk	7,858	Alexander D. Beechy				
Norwood	16,185	W. S. Cadman				
Oberlin	4,365	Howard L. Rawdon	3	June 15, 1908	Aug. 31, 1914	1,600
Painesville	5,501	Franklin H. Kendall	3	July —, 1902	Aug. —, 1913	1,800
Piqua	13,388	George C. Dietrich	3	July 1, 1909	June 30, 1913	2,300
Portsmouth	23,481	Frank Appel	2	Feb. —, 1908	July 1, 1913	2,500
Ravenna	5,310	Edward O. Trescott	3	Sept. —, 1907	Sept. —, 1913	1,800
St. Bernard	5,002	John L. Trisler	3	—— —, 1909	Sept. —, 1914	2,300
St. Marys	5,732	Chas. C. McBroom	3	June —, 1907	June —, 1914	1,700
Salem	8,943	Jesse S. Johnson	1	—— —, 1900	Sept. 1, 1913	2,300
Sandusky	19,989	Homer B. Williams	4	—— —, 1898	Aug. 31, 1913	3,000
Shelby	4,903	William H. Maurer	1	May —, 1912	do	1,500
Sidney	6,607	Herbert R. McVay	3	Aug. —, 1902	—— —, 1914	2,100
Springfield	46,921	Carey Boggess	5	Apr. —, 1894	Aug. 31, 1917	3,000
Steubenville	22,391	R. L. Ervin				
Tiffin	11,894	Charles A. Krout	5	June —, 1900	Aug. 31, 1917	2,000
Toledo	168,497	Wm. B. Guetteau	5	Oct. —, 1909	July 31, 1917	5,000
Toronto	4,271	Saml. K. Mardes				

[1] Second year, $2,200; third year, $2,300.
[2] Second year, $1,700.
[3] Salary increases $100 annually to $3,400.
[4] Second year, $2,000.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
OHIO—continued.						
Troy	6,122	Charles W. Cookson	3	Aug. 8,1906	Sept. 1,1913	$2,000
Uhrichsville	4,751	Luther E. Everett	3	July 1,1901	June 30,1914	1,500
Urbana	7,739	I. N. Keyser	4	Aug. 31,1901	—— —,1914	2,000
Van Wert	7,157	J. P. Sharkey	......	......	......	......
Wapakoneta	5,349	Frank E. Reynolds	3	Feb. —,1909	Aug. —,1914	2,000
Warren	11,081	Charles E. Carey	......	......	......	......
Washington C.H.	7,277	William McClain	3	May —,1909	Sept. —,1913	2,500
Wellston	6,875	Clarence D. Walden	2	July 1,1910	June 30,1913	1,600
Wellsville	7,769	Arthur D. Horton	2	June —,1909	June 1,1913	1,900
Wilmington	4,491	Edwin P. West	3	—— —,1909	July 1,1915	1,800
Wooster	6,136	George C. Maurer	3	Aug. 1,1912	Aug. 31,1915	2,300
Xenia	8,706	G. J. Graham	......	......	......	......
Youngstown	79,066	Novetus H. Chaney	4	July 7,1902	Sept. 1,1914	4,000
Zanesville	28,026	Willard C. Bowers	4	Dec. 6,1909	Aug. 31,1916	2,500
OKLAHOMA.						
Ada	4,349	Thomas W. Robison	1	July 1,1908	June 30,1913	1,200
Altus	4,821	William H. Decker	1	Mar. —,1908	Aug. 31,1913	1,800
Ardmore	8,618	Chas. W. Richards	1	June 1,1911	June 30,1913	2,400
Bartlesville	6,181	Francis W. Wenner	2	Mar. —,1911	Jan. 1,1914	2,100
Chickasha	10,320	William F. Ramey	1	May 25,1908	June 30,1913	2,100
Durant	5,330	Walter H. Echols	1	Aug. 1,1908	July 31,1913	1,800
El Reno	7,872	Fredk. N. Howell	1	July 1,1900	June 30,1913	2,000
Enid	13,799	Thomas W. Butcher	......	......	......	......
Guthrie	11,654	Fowler D. Brooks	1	May 24,1911	June 30,1913	1,800
Hugo	4,582	Henry G. Bennett	2	June 30,1910	.....do......	2,000
Lawton	7,788	Thomas B. Rybolt	......	......	......	......
McAlester	12,954	Charles N. Peak	1	Jan. 5,1912	June 30,1913	1,900
Muskogee	25,278	Edwin S. Monroe	1	July 1,1909	.....do......	3,000
Oklahoma	64,205	W. A. Brandenburg	3	Jan. 1,1910	.....do......	3,600
Okmulgee	4,176	Nelson O. Hopkins	1	Apr. —,1909	.....do......	2,000
Sapulpa	8,283	Albert C. Cohagan	1	—— —,1908	Sept. —,1913	1,800
Shawnee	12,474	Scott Glen	2	May —,1905	July 1,1914	2,100
Tulsa	18,182	James A. Koontz	1	May —,1912	July 1,1913	2,500
Vinita	4,082	William G. Masterson	2	July 1,1907	June 30,1914	1,920
Wagoner	4,018	Geo. W. Austin	1	Mar. 1,1912	June 30,1913	1,800
OREGON.						
Albany	4,275	Chas. Wm. Boetticher	1	Mar. —,1911	June 17,1913	1,750
Ashland	5,020	George A. Briscoe	2	May —,1911	June —,1913	1,800
Astoria	9,599	John G. Imel	3	Aug. 1,1909	Aug. 1,1914	2,000
Baker City	6,742	J. A. Churchill	1	—— —,1892	May 25,1913	2,500
Corvallis	4,552	Rollin W. Kirk	1	July —,1909	July —,1913	1,800
Eugene	9,009	Guy C. Stockton	1	Sept. —,1908	June —,1913	2,000
La Grande	4,843	John D. Stout	3	May —,1910	June —,1913	2,000
Medford	8,840	U. S. Collins	......	......	......	......
Oregon City	4,287	Fred J. S. Tooze	1	June —,1909	May 31,1913	1,850
Pendleton	4,460	J. S. Landers	1	Dec. 1,1906	July 1,1913	2,250
Portland	207,214	Frank Rigler	......	......	......	......
Roseburg	4,738	John W. Groves	1	Sept. 12,1910	May 23,1913	1,500
St. Johns	4,872	Charles H. Boyd	1	Apr. —,1908	June —,1913	1,800
Salem	14,094	Philip J. Kuntz	1	May —,1912	July 1,1913	2,500
The Dalles	4,880	Arthur C. Strange	1	July 1,1907	June 30,1913	2,100
PENNSYLVANIA.						
Allentown	51,913	Francis D. Raub	3	May —,1893	June 1,1914	2,500
Altoona	52,127	Henry H. Baish	3	Aug. 1,1908	.....do......	2,400
Ambridge	5,205	B. S. Bayle	......	......	......	......
Archbald	7,194	William A. Kelly	3	—— —,1905	—— —,1914	1,500
Ashland	6,855	T. E. Garber	3	Apr. 10,1912	June —,1914	1,500
Ashley	5,601	A. P. Cope [1]	1	Apr. —,1912	June —,1913	1,300
Avalon	4,317	O. S. Jamison [1]	1	May 18,1912	Sept. 1,1913	2,000
Avoca	4,634	Thos. A. Dixon [1]	1	Sept. 7,1907	—— —,1913	1,000
Bangor	5,369	John W. Gruver	3	June 1,1905	June 1,1914	1,575
Beaver Falls	12,191	Clyde C. Green	3	June 1,1911	June 30,1914	2,600
Bellefonte	4,145	Jonas E. Wagner [1]	1	Jan. —,1909	June 30,1913	1,500
Bellevue	6,323	W. Espey Albig [1]	1	June —,1909	July 1,1913	2,250
Berwick	5,357	James G. Sigman [1]	3	Dec. —,1906	June 1,1913	1,500
Bethlehem	12,837	William C. Sampson	3	July —,1911	May —,1914	1,700
Blakely	5,345	H. B. Anthony	3	Sept. —,1903	July —,1914	1,200
Bloomsburg	7,413	Lloyd P. Sterner	3	June 1,1891	June —,1911	1,600
Braddock	19,357	F. C. Steltz	......	......	......	......

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[1] Supervising principal.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.						
Bradford	14,544	Edw. E. Schermerhorn	3	Dec. —, 1909	June —, 1914	$2,400
Bristol	9,256	Louise D. Baggs	3	May —, 1897	May —, 1914	1,000
Butler	20,728	John A. Gibson	3	June 1, 1896	June 1, 1914	2,800
Carbondale	17,040	Thomas L. Gilmartin	3	May —, 1908	.....do.......	1,800
Carlisle	10,303	John C. Wagner	3	July —, 1903	June —, 1914	1,800
Carnegie	10,009	Thomas J. George	......	......	......	......
Carrick	6,117	Wm. Howard Sprenkle [1]	1	June —, 1908	July —, 1913	1,815
Catasauqua	5,250	Henry J. Reinhard [1]	3	July —, 1904	June 30, 1913	1,450
Chambersburg	11,800	Samuel Gelwix	3	Aug. 1, 1897	June —, 1914	1,200
Charleroi	9,615	Thos. L. Pollock	......	......	......	......
Chester	38,537	Thomas S. Cole	3	Oct. 8, 1906	June 1, 1914	2,500
Clearfield	6,851	George E. Zerfoss	3	July 3, 1911	July 24, 1915	2,000
Coaldale	5,154	John E. Gildea [1]	3	—— —, 1911	—— —, 1915	1,300
Coatesville	11,084	William T. Gordon	3	......	June —, 1914	2,000
Columbia	11,454	Hiram W. Dodd	3	June —, 1911	June —, 1914	1,600
Connellsville	12,845	Stanley P. Ashe	3	Mar. —, 1911	Apr. —, 1914	1,800
Conshohocken	7,480	Frank L. Cloud	2	Oct. —, 1912	June —, 1914	1,500
Coraopolis	5,252	J. Elwood Wherry [1]	3	June —, 1907	June —, 1914	2,000
Corry	5,991	L. E. Cross	3	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1914	1,500
Crafton	4,583	Calvin Bowman [1]	1	May —, 1911	May 29, 1913	1,400
Danville	7,517	Daniel N. Dieffenbacher	3	Sept. 1, 1907	June 1, 1914	1,400
Darby	6,305	Charles P. Sweeny	3	June —, 1898	June —, 1914	1,500
Dickson City	9,331	James P. Wilson	......	......	......	......
Donora	8,174	Edgar Reed [1]	1	June 1, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,800
Dorranceton	4,046	C. B. Hanyen, jr.[1]	3	—— —, 1907	—— —, 1913	1,400
Dubois	12,623	William R. Straughn	3	Jan. 1, 1912	—— —, 1914	2,000
Dunmore	17,615	Charles F. Hoban	3	—— —, 1902	June 1, 1914	2,400
Duquesne	15,727	Clyde H. Holford [1]	3	Sept. 1, 1906	July 1, 1914	2,400
Duryea	7,487	Frederick J. Regan [1]	3	Sept. —, 1894	June —, 1913	1,500
East Conemaugh	5,046	......	......	......	......	......
Easton	28,523	Wm. W. Cottingham	3	Aug. 24, 1853	June —, 1914	2,000
East Pittsburgh	5,615	George W. Campman [1]	3	July —, 1904	July —, 1915	1,800
Edwardsville	8,407	James O. Herman [1]	3	—— —, 1893	July —, 1915	1,500
Erie	66,525	Henry C. Missimer	3	May —, 1890	May —, 1914	3,600
Etna	5,830	......	......	......	......	......
Ford City	4,850	William W. Irwin [1]	3	July —, 1907	July 1, 1915	1,850
Forest City	5,749	Floyd H. Taylor [1]	1	May —, 1909	June 30, 1913	1,250
Franklin	9,767	N. P. Kinsley	......	......	......	......
Freeland	6,197	John H. Herring [1]	1	July 1, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,200
Galeton	4,027	Roger B. Foote [1]	1	May —, 1912	June 6, 1913	1,440
Gettysburg	4,030	Willis A. Burgoon [1]	1	June —, 1909	July —, 1913	1,200
Gilberton	5,401	William W. Ridge [1]	1	July 1, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,200
Girardville	4,396	Robert R. Stuart [1]	1	June —, 1912	July 1, 1913	1,365
Glassport	5,540	John A. Erhard [1]	1	June 1, 1908	May 29, 1913	1,500
Greensburg	13,012	J. H. Alleman	......	......	......	......
Greenville	5,909	G. B. Gerberich	3	June —, 1908	June —, 1914	2,000
Hanover	7,057	Joseph C. Carey	3	Aug. 1, 1907	May 1, 1914	1,500
Harrisburg	64,186	Frederick E. Downes	3	May —, 1905	May —, 1914	3,300
Hazleton	25,452	David A. Harman	3	Sept. —, 1881	—— —, 1914	3,000
Homestead	18,713	Walter S. Deffenbaugh	3	Mar. —, 1911	June —, 1914	2,400
Huntingdon	6,861	Edward R. Barclay	3	June 1, 1901	July —, 1914	1,600
Indiana	5,749	Frank E. Work	3	June —, 1908	June —, 1913	1,400
Jeannette	8,077	Theodore B. Shank	3	Apr. —, 1905	June —, 1914	2,000
Jersey Shore	5,381	John G. Dundore [1]	1	June 4, 1912	June 30, 1913	1,300
Johnsonburg	4,334	George W. Mitchell [1]	3	Sept. —, 1908	—— —, 1915	1,800
Johnstown	55,482	John Nichols Adee	3	May —, 1911	June —, 1914	3,500
Juniata	5,285	Marshall B. Wineland	2	June —, 1909	.....do.......	1,350
Kane	6,626	Frank R. Neild	3	June —, 1911	May —, 1914	1,600
Kingston	6,449	J. Richmond Merkel [1]	1	Sept. —, 1909	June —, 1912	1,680
Kittanning	4,311	Frank W. Goodwin	3	Mar. 1, 1907	June —, 1913	1,800
Knoxville	5,651	Alfred R. Gilbert [1]	1	July —, 1912	.....do.......	1,000
Lancaster	47,227	J. N. K. Hickman	......	......	......	2,000
Lansdowne	4,066	Walter L. Philips [1]	1	June —, 1906	June 30, 1913	2,600
Lansford	8,321	Elmer E. Kuntz	3	June 1, 1905	June 30, 1914	1,800
Larksville	9,288	D. J. Cray	3	—— —, 1899	—— —, 1913	1,700
Latrobe	8,777	Samuel E. Downs	3	July 1, 1911	June 30, 1914	2,400
Lebanon	19,240	Fred W. Robbins	3	.....do.......	June 1, 1914	2,500
Lehighton	5,316	Brinton M. Shull [1]	1	June —, 1907	June —, 1913	1,200
Lewistown	8,166	T. Latimer Brooks	3	July —, 1910	June —, 1914	1,600
Lockhaven	7,772	Edward S. Ling	3	June —, 1908	June 1, 1914	1,500
Luzerne	5,426	Theron G. Osborne [1]	3	June —, 1910	June —, 1913	1,200
McKeesport	42,694	Jos. B. Richey	3	May —, 1902	June —, 1914	3,300
McKees Rocks	14,702	Thomas K. Johnston	3	May 3, 1911	—— —, 1914	2,250
Mahanoy City	15,936	William N. Ehrhart	3	June —, 1896	June —, 1914	1,800

[1] **Supervising principal.**

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.						
Meadville	12,780	Russell H. Bellows	3	July 1, 1908	June 1, 1914	$2,100
Mechanicsburg	4,469	Ralph Jacoby [1]	1	June 1, 1912	June 1, 1913	1,000
Middletown	5,374	Harry J. Wickey	3	June —, 1899	June —, 1914	1,300
Millvale	7,861	Curtis C. Williamson [1]	1	June —, 1910	June 1, 1912	1,600
Milton	7,460	William A. Wilson	3	June —, 1905	June —, 1914	1,800
Minersville	7,240	Wilbur M. Yeingst	3	July 3, 1909	May —, 1914	1,800
Monessen	11,775	Harry E. Gress	3	June —, 1910	June —, 1914	2,000
Monongahela	7,598	Renwick G. Dean	3	Sept. —, 1907	May —, 1914	1,860
Mount Carmel	17,532	Samuel H. Dean	3	June 1, 1893	June 1, 1914	1,800
Mount Oliver	4,241	Philomina Ubinger [1]	1	—— —, 1894	June —, 1913	1,350
Mount Pleasant	5,812	Urie Lee Gordy [1]	1	June —, 1907	June 30, 1913	1,800
Munhall	5,185	Amos E. Kraybill [1]	1	July 1, 1911	....do	2,400
Nanticoke	18,877	Alton P. Diffendafer	3	Jan. —, 1909	June —, 1914	2,400
New Brighton	8,329	Floyd Atwell	3	June 1, 1911	June 1, 1914	2,200
New Castle	36,280	Thomas A. Kimes	3	June —, 1905	July —, 1914	2,400
New Kensington	7,707	Jas. E. Hershberger	2	Mar. —, 1912	June —, 1914	2,000
Norristown	27,875	Allen S. Martin	3	Jan. —, 1906	....do	2,600
Northampton	8,729	William D. Landis	3	June —, 1905	....do	1,700
North Braddock	11,824	John L. Spitler	1		June 1, 1911	2,100
Oil City	15,657	James J. Palmer				
Old Forge	11,324	Francis R. Coyne				
Olyphant	8,505	M. W. Cummings				
Parsons	4,338	Ebenezer A. Evans [1]	1	Nov. 11, 1907	July 1, 1913	1,200
Philadelphia	1,549,008	Martin G. Brumbaugh	1	June 1, 1906	Dec. 31, 1912	7,500
Phoenixville	10,743	Robert E. Laramy	3	May —, 1905	May —, 1914	2,000
Pitcairn	4,975	Arthur B. Benn [1]	1	June —, 1909	July 1, 1913	1,500
Pittsburgh	533,905	Sylvanus L. Heeter	4	Jan. —, 1912	Jan. 1, 1916	9,000
Pittston	16,267	Francis S. McGuigan [1]	1	Aug. 1, 1912	Sept. 1, 1913	1,800
Plymouth	16,996	Sherman L. Smith [1]	1	Aug. —, 1908	May 31, 1911	1,600
Pottstown	15,599	William W. Rupert	3	June —, 1888	May —, 1914	1,600
Pottsville	20,236	Stephen A. Thurlow	3	July —, 1907	—— —, 1914	1,800
Punxsutawney	9,058	Frank S. Jackson	3	Dec. 3, 1908	May 31, 1914	1,900
Rankin	6,042	Rozell S. Penfield [1]	3	June —, 1911	June —, 1915	1,800
Reading	96,071	Charles S. Foos	3	June 1, 1902	June 1, 1914	4,000
Renovo	4,621	George A. Mincemoyer [1]	2	June —, 1908	June —, 1913	1,380
Ridgway	5,408	Walter M. Peirce	3	June —, 1907	June 30, 1914	2,250
Rochester	5,903	William S. Taft	3	July 1, 1910	—— —, 1914	1,800
St. Clairboro (Schuylkill Co.).	6,455	Thomas G. Jones [1]	3	Sept. —, 1909	May 31, 1915	1,170
St. Marys	6,346	J. J. Lynch	1	June 1, 1902	June 30, 1913	1,800
Sayre	6,426	Lewis E. De Laney [1]	1	Dec. —, 1907	June —, 1913	1,600
Schuylkillboro (P. O., R. F. D., Phoenixville).	4,747	Eli P. Heckert [1]	1	June —, 1906	June 1, 1913	1,200
Scotdale	5,456					
Scranton	129,867	George Howell	3	June —, 1908	June —, 1914	5,000
Sewickley	4,479	George E. Mark [1]	1	Dec. 4, 1911	June 13, 1913	2,500
Shamokin	19,588	Joseph Howerth	3	Feb. 1, 1902	June 1, 1914	2,500
Sharon	15,270	Samuel H. Hadley	3	June 9, 1902	June —, 1914	2,300
Sharpsburg	8,153	Charles C. Kelso [1]	3	June —, 1912	June —, 1915	2,250
Shenandoah	25,774	J. W. Cooper	3	Apr. 5, 1897	May —, 1914	2,000
Slatington	4,454	James W. Snyder [1]	3	Dec. —, 1906	June —, 1914	1,500
South Bethlehem	19,973	Owen R. Wilt	3	—— —, 1886	....do	1,800
South Fork	4,592	William C. Crawford [1]	1	June —, 1911	June —, 1913	900
South Sharon	10,190	Lemuel R. Eckles	3	June 1, 1909	July 1, 1914	2,100
Steelton	14,246	Lemuel E. McGinnis	3	June —, 1888	....do	2,500
Stroudsburg	4,379	Will H. Ramsey [1]	1	—— —, 1887	July 1, 1913	1,350
Summit Hill	4,209	James F. Forrest [1]	3	Sept. —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,250
Sunbury	13,770	Ira C. M. Ellenberger	3	June 1, 1908	June 1, 1914	2,400
Swissvale	7,381	Edward Maguire [1]	1	June —, 1908	June 30, 1913	2,400
Swayersville boro (P. O., Maltby).	5,396					
Tamaqua	9,462	J. F. Derr	3	May 5, 1908	June —, 1914	1,500
Tarentum	7,414	Andrew D. Endsley	3	June —, 1905	....do	2,400
Taylor	9,060	William S. Robinson	3	June 1, 1911	May 1, 1914	1,600
Throop	5,133	John J. O'Hara	3	May —, 1911	May —, 1914	1,500
Titusville	8,533	Henry Pease	3	Apr. —, 1897	May —, 1914	2,250
Towanda	4,281	Leon J. Russell [1]	1	Mar. 4, 1912	July 1, 1913	1,500
Turtle Creek	4,995	William A. Rodgers [1]	3	June 1, 1908	June 1, 1915	2,000
Tyrone	7,176	Harry S. Fleck	3	June 1, 1908	May 31, 1914	1,500
Uniontown	13,344	Clifford J. Scott	3	July —, 1907	June —, 1914	3,000
Warren	11,080	Robert T. Adams	3	July —, 1909	July 1, 1914	2,250
Washington	18,778	Thomas G. McCleary	3	May 2, 1911	June —, 1914	2,500
Waynesboro	7,199	J. Hassler Reber	3	June —, 1899	....do	1,500

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[1] Supervising principal.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.						
West Berwick	5,512	Harlan R. Snyder[1]	3	—— —,1901	May —,1915	$1,200
West Chester	11,767	Addison L. Jones	3	June 1,1889	June —,1914	2,500
West Hazleton	4,715	Ernest Encke[1]	1	—— —,1907	June —,1913	....
West Pittston	6,848	Louis P. Bierly[1]	1	Sept. —,1898	June —,1912	2,000
Wilkes-Barre	67,105	James M. Coughlin	3	Aug. —,1891	June —,1914	4,500
Wilkinsburg	18,924	James L. Allison	3	Aug. —,1902	July —,1914	3,000
Williamsport	31,860	Charles Lose	3	June 1,1894	June 1,1914	2,500
Wilmerding	6,133	Charles W. Shaffer	3	July —,1908	July —,1913	1,800
Windber	8,013	Eden A. Hower[1]	1	June —,1908	June 1,1912	1,400
Winton	5,280	John J. Judge	....	....	....	....
York	44,750	Atreus Wanner	3	June 1,1890	June 1,1914	2,400
RHODE ISLAND.						
Bristol	8,565	John P. Reynolds	1	Sept. 1,1884	Sept. 1,1913	1,600
Burrillville	7,878	Joseph C. Sweeney	1	Sept. 1,1910	June 30,1913	1,500
Central Falls	22,754	Emerson L. Adams	1	Feb. 1,1912	Feb. 1,1913	1,800
Coventry	5,848	Henry M. Walradt	1	Aug. —,1909	Aug. 31,1913	1,500
Cranston	21,107	William C. Hobbs	1	Aug. 23,1912	Jan. 1,1913	1,900
Cumberland	10,107	William H. Winslow	....	....	....	....
East Providence	15,808	James R. D. Oldham	....	....	....	....
Johnston	5,935	Ira L. Nickerson	1	Apr. 1,1912	Dec. 1,1912	1,500
Lincoln	9,825	Carl Holman	1	Mar. 1,1912	July 1,1913	1,550
Newport	27,149	Herbert W. Lull	1	June —,1900	Jan. —,1913	3,000
North Kingstown	4,048	Frederick D. Blake	1	Nov. 4,1905	Nov. 9,1912	....
North Providence	5,407	Frederic H. Lincoln	1	Dec. 1,1911	Nov. 30,1912	1,500
Pawtucket	51,622	Frank O. Draper	1	Mar. 1,1906	Dec. 31,1912	3,000
Providence	224,326	....	....	....	....	5,000
South Kingstown	5,176	William A. Brady	....	....	....	....
Warren	6,585	Leroy G. Staples	....	....	....	....
Warwick	26,629	Elwood T. Wyman	1	Nov. —,1905	Nov. —,1912	2,000
Westerly	8,696	William H. Holmes, jr.	1	July 1,1903	July 1,1913	2,500
Woonsocket	38,125	Frank E. McFee	1	Dec. —,1886	Dec. 31,1912	2,000
SOUTH CAROLINA.						
Abbeville	4,459	Robert B. Cheatham	1	Apr. 23,1912	July 1,1913	....
Anderson	9,654	Elliott C. McCants	....	....	....	....
Charleston	58,833	Andrew B. Rhett	4	Jan. —,1912	Jan. —,1916	2,500
Chester	4,754	Wm. H. McNairy	3	June —,1906	Sept. —,1915	1,500
Columbia	26,319	Ernest S. Dreher	1	—— —,1895	Apr. —,1913	2,000
Florence	7,057	Wilfred L. Brooker	1	June —,1910	June —,1913	1,800
Gaffney	4,767	R. M. Ivins	1	—— —,1911	May 20,1913	1,400
Georgetown	5,530	Wm. C. Bynum	1	—— —,1897	June 12,1913	1,380
Greenville	15,741	E. L. Hughes	....	....	....	....
Greenwood	6,614	Wm. W. Nickels	....	....	....	....
Laurens	4,818	Barney L. Jones	....	....	....	....
Newberry	5,028	Henry L. Dean	....	....	....	....
Orangeburg	5,906	Albert J. Thackston	1	June —,1897	June 30,1913	1,800
Rock Hill	7,216	Lueco Gunter	1	Apr. 14,1911	.....do.......	2,050
Spartanburg	17,517	Frank Evans	1	June —,1895	June 6,1913	2,000
Sumter	8,109	Samuel H. Edmunds	1	—— —,1895	July 1,1913	2,400
Union	5,623	Davis Jeffries	1	—— —,1897	May —,1913	1,500
SOUTH DAKOTA.						
Aberdeen	10,753	Henry C. Johnson	3	Mar. 5,1909	July 1,1913	2,800
Huron	5,791	J. M. Martin	1	Mar. 12,1912	June 13,1913	1,800
Lead	8,392	Theodore J. Saam	2	Aug. 1,1911	Aug. 1,1913	2,500
Mitchell	6,515	John W. McClinton	1	Jan. 13,1911	.....do.......	2,300
Sioux Falls	14,094	Archibald A. McDonald	1	Sept. —,1907	Jan. 31,1913	3,000
Watertown	7,010	Lester B. Parsons	1	Sept. 1,1907	Sept. 1,1913	2,000
TENNESSEE.						
Bristol	7,148	Percival S. Barnes	1	Sept. 11,1911	May —,1913	1,500
Chattanooga	44,604	Dewey A. Graves	3	June —,1900	June —,1913	2,500
Clarkesville	8,548	Samuel L. Smith	3	July —,1909	June 30,1914	2,000
Cleveland	5,549	DeWitt C. Arnold	....	....	....	....
Columbia	5,754	R. L. Harris	....	....	....	....
Dyersburg	4,149	Clarence M. Walker	1	June 5,1911	May —,1913	1,350
Jackson	15,779	Robert Lee Bynum	2	—— —,1912	July 31,1914	2,100
Johnson City	8,502	Jas. L. Brooks	3	July —,1910	June 30,1914	1,800
Knoxville	36,346	Walter E. Miller	2	July 15,1911	July 15,1913	2,500

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[1] Supervising principal.

[2] Indefinite tenure.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
TENNESSEE—con.						
Memphis	131,105	Lloyd E. Wolfe	2	May —, 1911	June 1, 1913	$3,600
Morristown	4,007	W. L. Wallace				
Murfreesboro	4,679					
Nashville	110,364	John J. Keyes	3	Aug. —, 1909	June —, 1913	3,600
Park City	5,126	John Riley Lowry	3	July —, 1907	—— —, 1913	1,800
Union City	4,389	Arthur C. Nute	3	July —, 1906	June —, 1914	1,800
TEXAS.						
Abilene	9,204	J. H. Burnett				
Amarillo	9,957	Samuel M. Byrd	2	June 10, 1910	June —, 1914	2,500
Austin	29,860	Arthur N. McCallum	2	July 1, 1903	June 30, 1913	2,750
Beaumont	20,640	Henry F. Triplett	2	July 15, 1903	July 15, 1914	3,000
Belton	4,164	Louis H. Hubbard	1	Feb. 26, 1910	June 5, 1911	
Big Spring	4,102	Jacob W. Dees	1	June 1, 1910	May 31, 1913	1,500
Bonham	4,844	Idris W. Evans	1	May —, 1901	June 30, 1912	2,200
Brenham	4,718	William D. Notley	1	July 1, 1911	July 1, 1913	2,000
Brownsville	10,517	J. C. Wright	1	May 31, 1910	Sept. —, 1912	1,500
Brownwood	6,967	Thomas Hervey Hart	1	July 25, 1912	Aug. 1, 1913	1,600
Bryan	4,132	William C. Lawson	1		Aug. 31, 1913	1,800
Cleburne	10,364	Robert G. Hall	1	Apr. 3, 1907	June 30, 1913	2,400
Corpus Christi	8,222	Chas. W. Crossley				
Corsicana	9,749	John E. Blair	1	Aug. 1, 1908	July —, 1912	2,200
Dallas	92,104	James A. Brooks	2	May 1, 1911	July 1, 1913	3,600
Denison	13,632	Frank Ben Hughes	1	Feb. 1, 1904	Feb. 1, 1913	2,200
Denton	4,732	John W. Beaty	1	Apr. 12, 1912	May 31, 1913	1,500
El Paso	39,279	Norman R. Crozier	2	Apr. 20, 1910	July 1, 1913	3,150
Ennis	5,669	J. D. Coghlan	2	Feb. —, 1909	May 15, 1914	2,000
Fort Worth	73,312	James Wm. Cantwell	2	May —, 1908	June —, 1913	3,600
Gainesville	7,624	John P. Glasgow	1	Feb. 25, 1910	May 31, 1913	2,160
Galveston	36,981	John W. Hopkins	1	July 1, 1896	June 30, 1912	3,600
Greenville	8,850	Louis Clyde Gee	1	June —, 1907	do	1,800
Hillsboro	6,115	Thomas D. Brooks	1	Oct. —, 1906	Aug. 31, 1913	2,000
Houston	78,800	Paul W. Horn	2	June —, 1904	June 12, 1914	4,000
Houston Heights	6,984	L. W. Greathouse	1	July 1, 1911	June 24, 1913	1,800
Laredo	14,855	L. J. Christen				
Longview	5,155	Samuel J. Blocker	5	May 1, 1908	—— — 1913	1,800
McKinney	4,714	John H. Hill	1	—— —, 1904	June 1, 1913	1,500
Marshall	11,452	Bruce B. Cobb	2	June 1, 1910	May 31, 1914	2,200
Orange	5,527	James E. Binkley	2	Sept. 1, 1909	Aug. 31, 1913	1,900
Palestine	10,482	Walker King	1	Sept. —, 1905	June 15, 1913	2,100
Paris	11,269	Judge G. Wooten	2	May —, 1893	Sept. —, 1913	2,500
Port Arthur	7,663	J. H. Bright	2	June 1, 1908	June 1, 1913	2,000
San Angelo	10,321	Felix E. Smith	2	Aug. —, 1905	Apr. —, 1914	2,250
San Antonio	96,614	Charles J. Lukin	2	July 1, 1908	June 30, 1913	3,600
San Marcos	4,071	George M. Sims	1	June 1, 1908	July 31, 1913	1,700
Sherman	12,412	Jay C. Pyle	1	June 1, 1907	May 31, 1913	2,200
Sulphur Springs	5,151	Foster V. Garrison	1	June 26, 1906	Aug. 31, 1913	1,500
Sweetwater	4,176	Medicus B. Johnson	2	June 25, 1906	June 1, 1913	1,700
Taylor	5,314	John F. O'Shea	2	June 1, 1908	May 31, 1913	1,800
Temple	10,993	Justin F. Kimball	2	May —, 1900	Aug. 1, 1914	2,500
Terrell	7,050	Starlin M. N. Marrs	1	July 1, 1893	June 30, 1912	1,800
Texarkana	9,790	Oscar Lee Dunaway	1	May 28, 1911	Aug. 1, 1913	2,400
Tyler	10,400	W. T. Adams				
Waco	26,425	Jno. C. Lattimore	2	June —, 1899	June 30, 1914	3,000
Waxahachie	6,205	G. B. Winn	1	May —, 1910	Sept. 1, 1912	1,700
Weatherford	5,074	Thomas W. Stanley	2	Oct. —, 1904	May 31, 1913	1,600
Wichita Falls	8,200	George H. Carpenter	2	July 19, 1912	Aug. 1, 1914	2,400
Yoakum	4,657	Charles A. Peterson	2	Sept. —, 1905	Sept. —, 1914	1,800
UTAH.						
Logan	7,522	Alma Molyneux		June 20, 1907		
Murray	4,057	C. E. Gaufin	2	June 6, 1912	July 1, 1914	2,000
Ogden	25,580	John M. Mills		Aug. 1, 1909		
Provo	8,925	Larz E. Eggertsen	2	July 1, 1910	June 30, 1914	1,800
Salt Lake City	92,777	David H. Christensen	2	July 1, 1901	do	4,800
VERMONT.						
Barre	10,734	Edward M. Roscoe	1	Feb. 27, 1912	June 30, 1913	2,000
Bellows Falls	4,883	Orvis K. Collins	1	July —, 1910	do	1,850
Bennington	8,698	Albert W. Varney	1	June —, 1903	do	2,000
Brattleboro	7,541	Florence M. Wellman [1]	1	Sept. —, 1907	June 13, 1913	1,000
Burlington	20,468	Henry O. Wheeler	1	Apr —, 1880	Apr. —, 1911	2,250

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[1] Supervisor of grades.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
VERMONT—contd.						
Montpelier	7,856	Sherburn C. Hutchinson	1	Apr. 1, 1911	June 30, 1913	$2,500
Rutland	13,546	David B. Locke	1	—— —, 1906	June 30, 1913	2,100
St. Albans	6,381	George S. Wright	1	Aug. —, 1910	do	1,900
St. Johnsbury	8,098	Corwin F. Palmer	1	May —, 1908	do	2,000
Springfield	4,784	Herbert D. Casey	1	Apr. 2, 1912	June —, 1913	1,600
VIRGINIA.						
Alexandria	15,329	William H. Sweeney	4	July 1, 1909	July 1, 1913	1,200
Bristol	6,247	Saml. R. McChesney	4	—— —, 1905	—— —, 1913	1,640
Charlottesville	6,765	James G. Johnson	4	June —, 1909	July 1, 1913	1,500
Clifton Forge	5,748	James G. Pressly [1]	1	June 1, 1911	May 30, 1913	1,400
Covington	4,234	J. G. Jeter				
Danville	19,020	Ford H. Wheatley	4	Sept. 17, 1908	July 1, 1913	2,075
Fredericksburg	5,874	Hugh S. Bird				
Hampton	5,505	John M. Willis				
Harrisonburg	4,879	Wm. H. Keisler [1]	1	Sept. 1, 1894	June 1, 1913	2,000
Lynchburg	29,494	Edward C. Glass	4	Jan. —, 1879	June 30, 1913	2,725
Newport News	20,205	Willis A. Jenkins	4	July 1, 1909	July 1, 1913	2,000
Norfolk	67,452	Richard A. Dobie	4	Jan. —, 1896	July —, 1913	2,830
Petersburg	24,127	Robert R. Jones	4	Mar. —, 1908	June 30, 1913	2,000
Portsmouth	33,190	Harry A. Hunt	4	July 1, 1909	do	2,000
Pulaski	4,807	Elmer J. Cooley [1]	1		May 25, 1913	1,200
Radford	4,202	J. P. Whitt	2	July 1, 1911	July 1, 1913	1,200
Richmond	127,628	J. A. C. Chandler	4	July 1, 1909	June 30, 1913	3,822
Roanoke	34,874	Harris Hart	4	May —, 1893	do	2,500
Staunton	10,604	John P. Neff	4	June —, 1909	do	2,000
Suffolk	7,008	Lee Britt				
Winchester	5,864	Maurice M. Lynch	4	Apr. —, 1886	June 30, 1913	975
WASHINGTON.						
Aberdeen	13,660	Arthur Wilson	1	July —, 1908	June 30, 1912	2,400
Anacortes	4,168	Frank C. Popham	1	Sept. —, 1910	June —, 1913	1,800
Bellingham	24,298	Elmer L. Cave	3	July 1, 1909	June 30, 1913	3,000
Centralia	7,311	Roy B. Kellogg	1	June 1, 1907	do	2,000
Chehalis	4,507	Edmund T. Duffield	2	July 1, 1910	June 30, 1914	2,500
Ellensburg	4,209	Edward J. Klemme	1	Aug. 3, 1912	Sept. 1, 1913	2,200
Everett	24,814	Charles R. Frazier	3	July —, 1910	June —, 1915	3,600
Hoquiam	8,171	E. L. McDonnell	1	July 1, 1911	July 1, 1913	2,000
North Yakima	14,082	Wellington D. Sterling	1	June —, 1911	Aug. 1, 1913	2,700
Olympia	6,996	Chauncey E. Beach	2	July 1, 1909	June 30, 1914	2,200
Port Townsend	4,181	A. N. French	1	Sept. 3, 1911	June 15, 1913	1,700
Puyallup	4,544	Edmund B. Walker	1	Aug. 1, 1908	Aug. 1, 1913	1,800
Seattle	237,194	Frank B. Cooper	3	—— —, 1901	—— —, 1915	7,500
Spokane	104,402	Bruce M. Watson	2	Mar. 20, 1908	July 1, 1913	4,000
Tacoma	83,743	William F. Geiger	3	Jan. 1, 1912	June 30, 1915	[2] 4,000
Vancouver	9,300	Charles W. Shumway	1	June —, 1895	June 30, 1913	2,160
Walla Walla	19,364	Walter M. Kern	2	July —, 1912	July —, 1914	2,500
Wenatchee	4,050	Alfred L. Brown	2	Sept. 1, 1906	June —, 1914	2,250
WEST VIRGINIA.						
Benwood	4,976	H. L. Pedicord				
Bluefield	11,188	H. E. Cooper	1	July 3, 1911	June 30, 1913	1,800
Charleston	22,996	George S. Laidley	2	—— —, 1878	July 1, 1913	3,000
Clarksburg	9,201	Frank Lee Burdette	1	Sept. —, 1897	June 30, 1913	2,000
Elkins	5,260	Otis Guy Wilson	1	Sept. —, 1908	July 1, 1913	1,800
Fairmont	9,711	Joseph Rosier	1	July —, 1900	June 30, 1913	2,500
Grafton	7,563	M. M. Brooks	1	May —, 1911	May —, 1913	1,800
Huntington	31,161	Wilson M. Foulk	1	June —, 1905	June 30, 1913	2,500
Martinsburg	10,698	William C. Morton	2	July 1, 1909	July 1, 1914	1,650
Morgantown	9,150	George M. Evans	1	July —, 1908	June 30, 1913	2,100
Moundsville	8,918	George E. Hubbs	1	July 1, 1909	do	1,500
Parkersburg	17,842	Ira B. Bush	2	July 10, 1910	June 30, 1914	2,500
Wellsburg	4,189	Forest B. Bryant	2	July 1, 1910	do	2,000
Wheeling	41,641	Hervey B. Work	2	Oct. 20, 1904	July —, 1913	2,625
WISCONSIN.						
Antigo	7,196	Roy A. Brandt	1	May 6, 1912	July 1, 1913	1,900
Appleton	16,773	Carrie E. Morgan	3	July 1, 1894	June 30, 1915	1,200
Ashland	11,594	J. F. Wilson				
Baraboo	6,324	A. C. Kingsford	1	June —, 1912	June 30, 1913	2,000
Beaver Dam	6,758	Lester R. Creutz	1	Aug. —, 1910	July 1, 1913	1,800

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[1] Supervising principal.

[2] Second year, $4,500; third year, $5,000.

IV.—SUPERINTENDENTS IN CITIES AND TOWNS OF 4,000 POPULATION AND OVER—Continued.

City.	Population, census of 1910.	Superintendent.	Term of office in years.	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.	Salary per annum.
WISCONSIN—con.						
Beloit	15,125	Frank E. Converse	1	Aug. —, 1897	Aug. 1, 1913	$2,500
Berlin	4,636	William T. Anderson	1	May 5, 1909	June 30, 1913	1,750
Chippewa Falls	8,893	Charles J. Brewer	1	Dec. 1, 1911	.....do.......	2,400
De Pere:						
East side	4,477	John F. Hogan	1	Apr. —, 1912	June —, 1913	1,200
West side		Harley W. Lyon	1	May —, 1911	June —, 1912	1,350
Eau Claire	18,310	W. H. Schulz	1	Aug. 1, 1906	July 1, 1913	2,500
Fond du Lac	18,797	Guy D. Smith	3	July 1, 1910	June 30, 1914	2,500
Grand Rapids	6,521	Charles Wm. Schwede	1	July —, 1909	June 30, 1913	2,100
Green Bay	25,236	A. W. Burton	3	—— —, 1900	Aug. —, 1915	2,500
Janesville	13,894	Harry C. Buell	1	July 1, 1901	June 30. 1913	2,500
Kaukauna	4,717	Leslie P. Bunker	1	May —, 1908	Aug. 15, 1913	1,700
Kenosha	21,371	Mary D. Bradford	3	May —, 1910	June 13, 1913	2,300
La Crosse	30,417	Louis Paul Benezet	1	July 1, 1910	June 30, 1913	3,000
Madison	25,531	Richard B. Dudgeon	1	Aug. —, 1891	.....do.......	2,500
Manitowoc	13,027	P. J. Zimmers	3	Apr. —, 1910	July —, 1914	2,700
Marinette	14,610	George H. Landgraf	3	July 1, 1903	June 30, 1913	2,700
Marshfield	5,783	Carl W. Otto	1	Apr. —, 1910	June 15, 1913	1.850
Menasha	6,081	John Callahan	1	July 1, 1901	June 30, 1913	2,400
Menominie	5,036	Fred Thomson	1	July 1, 1911	.....do.......	2,000
Merrill	8,689	William Milne	1	July 1, 1910	July 1, 1913	1,700
Milwaukee	373,857	Carroll G. Pearse	3	Mar. —, 1904	June 30, 1913	6,000
Monroe	4,410	George B. Haverson	....	....	....	....
Neenah	5,734	Edward M. Beeman	3	Aug. —, 1903	June 30, 1915	[1] 2,300
Oconto	5,629	George M. Snodgrass	1	Apr. 20, 1912	July —, 1913	1,700
Oshkosh	33,062	Matthew N. MacIver	1	June 30, 1905	June 30, 1913	2,700
Platteville	4,452	Charles E. Slothower	1	June —, 1909	June —, 1913	1,800
Portage	5,440	W. G. Clough	1	—— —, 1875	June 30, 1913	1,700
Racine	38,002	Burton E. Nelson	3	Aug. 1, 1904	Aug. 1, 1914	[2] 2,900
Rhinelander	5,637	Willis P. Colburn	1	Apr. —, 1912	June 1, 1913	2,000
Sheboygan	26,398	Henry F. Leverenz	1	Apr. 1, 1899	Apr. 15, 1913	2,500
South Milwaukee	6,092	Frederick Wm. Hein	3	Sept. 1, 1909	—— —, 1914	1,800
Stevens Point	8,692	Junius E. Roberts	1	May —, 1911	June —, 1913	1,900
Stoughton	4,761	George O. Banting	3	June —, 1906	June 30, 1915	2,100
Sturgeon Bay	4,262	Rudolph Soukup	1	May —, 1911	June —, 1913	1,600
Superior	40,384	William Eli Maddock	3	July —, 1905	July 1, 1915	3,000
Two Rivers	4,850	Wm. J. Hamilton	1	July 1, 1907	June 30, 1913	2,100
Watertown	8,829	Thomas J. Berto	....	....	....	....
Waukesha	8,740	Guy Fred Loomis	3	June —, 1908	June —, 1914	2,250
Wausau	16,560	Silas B. Tobey	1	July 1, 1905	June 30, 1913	2,750
West Allis	6,645	Thomas J. Jones	3	July —, 1907	July —, 1914	2,000
WYOMING.						
Cheyenne	11,320	Ira Basil Fee	1	July 26, 1912	July 31, 1913	2,400
Laramie	8,237	William M. Sinclair	1	Aug. 12, 1912	Sept. 1, 1913	2,000
Rawlins	4,256	M. E. Shuck	....	....	....	....
Rock Springs	5,778	Oscar J. Blakesley	1	—— —, 1906	May —, 1913	1,800
Sheridan	8,408	John J. Early	1	Aug. 1, 1908	Aug. 1, 1913	2,500

[1] Second year, $2,400; third year, $2,500.

[2] $3,000 in 1913-14.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.[1]

County.	Superintendent.	County.	Superintendent.
ALABAMA.		ALABAMA—contd.	
Autauga	J. F. Posey, Prattville.	Clarke	T. L. Head, jr., Grove Hill.
Baldwin	J. S. Lambert, Bay Minette.	Clay	Lycurgus Leftwich, Ashland.
Barbour	J. T. Searcy, Clayton.	Cleburne	E. R. Carlson, Fruithurst.
Bibb	A. W. Hayes, Woodstock.	Coffee	C. H. Byrd, Enterprise.
Blount	Sam Ingram, Oneonta.	Colbert	J. W. Johnson, Sheffield.
Bullock	George R. Hall, James.	Conecuh	G. M. Harper, Herbert.
Butler	C. H. Lewis, Greenville.	Coosa	Jef Sox, Rockford, R. F. D. No. 2.
Calhoun	H. T. Persons, Anniston.		
Chambers	W. T. Hollingsworth, Lafayette.	Covington	W. O. Bozeman, Andalusia.
Cherokee	John H. Blair, Center.	Crenshaw	C. K. Sharp, Luverne.
		Cullman	Wm. M. Wood, Cullman.
Chilton	J. W. Moore, Clanton.	Dale	W. M. Head, Ozark.
Choctaw	W. J. Dansby, Silas.	Dallas	D. M. Callaway, Selma.

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[1] The following States have no county superintendents: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Ohio, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
ALABAMA—contd.	
Dekalb	J. Valdor Curtis, Fort Payne.
Elmore	G. H. Howard, Wetumpka.
Escambia	J. B. O'Bannon, Brewton.
Etowah	J. E. Williams, Gadsden.
Fayette	J. Alexander Smith, Fayette.
Franklin	T. H. Roberson, Russellville.
Geneva	J. W. Steely, Hartford.
Greene	W. P. Archibald, Knoxville.
Hale	J. A. Ellerbe, Greensboro.
Henry	E. C. Glover, Abbeville.
Houston	J. B. Dell, Dothan.
Jackson	C. S. Brewton, Scottsboro.
Jefferson	I. W. McAdory, Birmingham.
Lamar	B. H. Wilkerson, Vernon.
Lauderdale	H. L. Reeder, Florence.
Lawrence	M. H. Craig, Moulton.
Lee	J. A. Albright, Opelika.
Limestone	W. H. McClellan, Athens.
Lowndes	H. R. Williamson, Hayneville
Macon	G. S. Rodgers, Tuskegee.
Madison	S. R. Butler, Huntsville.
Marengo	B. F. Gilder, Linden.
Marion	D. W. Bowlan, Hamilton.
Marshall	R. Lee Barnes, Albertville, R. F. D. No. 5.
Mobile	S. S. Murphy, Mobile.
Monroe	J. A. Barnes, Jones Mills.
Montgomery	G. W. Covington, Montgomery.
Morgan	P. A. Oden, Somerville.
Perry	Chas. C. Johnson, Marion.
Pickens	W. H. Storey, Carrollton.
Pike	Chas. F. White, Troy.
Randolph	J. N. Word, Wedowee.
Russell	F. M. de Graffenried, Seale.
Shelby	J. O. Dorough, Columbiana.
St. Clair	B. F. Hammond, Ashville.
Sumter	R. B. Callaway, Livingston.
Talladega	M. T. Linder, Talladega.
Tallapoosa	J. P. Oliver, Dadeville.
Tuscaloosa	Perry B. Hughes, Tuscaloosa
Walker	T. J. Lamar, Jasper.
Washington	R. E. Blunt, Sunflower.
Wilcox	Will M. Cook, Camden.
Winston	Jas. S. Vanderford, Double Springs.
ARIZONA.	
Apache	Gilbert E. Greer, St. Johns.
Cochise	H. H. Hotchkiss, Tombstone.
Coconino	N. G. Layton, Flagstaff.
Gila	T. P. Howard, Globe.
Graham	J. A. Woods, Thatcher.
Greenlee	J. W. Aker, Duncan.
Maricopa	J. A. Riggins, Phoenix.
Mohave	Chas. Metcalfe, Kingman.
Navajo	R. C. Smith, Holbrook.
Pima	W. M. Pryce, Tucson.
Pinal	E. B. Devine, Florence.
Santa Cruz	H. R. Renshaw, Nogales.
Yavapai	W. Curtis Miller, Prescott.
Yuma	John M. Hess, Yuma.
ARKANSAS.[1]	
Arkansas	L. K. Menard, De Witt.
Ashley	D. C. Hastings, Crossett.
Baxter	Joe George, Mountain Home.
Benton	W. D. Jeter, Bentonville.
Boone	J. O. Curnutt, Bellefonte.
Bradley	B. L. Herring, Warren.
Calhoun	J. L. Harris, Hampton.
Carroll	C. S. Barnett, Eureka Springs.
Carroll	R. C. Gibson, Berryville.
ARKANSAS—contd.	
Chicot	Wm. Kirten, Lake Village.
Clark	B. F. Condray, Arkadelphia.
Clay	W. G. Barker, Corning.
Clay	J. K. Browning, Piggott.
Cleburne	T. M. Norwood, Quitman.
Cleveland	B. Y. Searcy, Rison.
Columbia	J. D. Nash, Waldo.
Conway	T. L. Haynes, Morrilton.
Craighead	E. B. Barrett, Jonesboro.
Crawford	T. F. Wasson (supt.), Van Buren.
Crittenden	T. P Johnson, Earle.
Cross	R. L. Block, Wynne.
Dallas	H. O. Thweatt, Sparkman.
Desha	J. H. Wallace, McGehee.
Drew	W. C. Cruce, Monticello.
Faulkner	J. M. C. Vaughter, Conway.
Franklin	J. D. Benson, Ozark
Franklin	M. V. Waterfield, Charleston.
Fulton	R. L. White, Salem.
Garland	D. A. Crockett (supt.), Hot Springs.
Grant	Ed F. McDonald, Leola.
Greene	Geo. H. Rogers, Paragould.
Hempstead	H. Harris, Patmos.
Hot Spring	W. D. Leiper, Malvern.
Howard	R. H. Kolb, Nashville.
Independence	Sidney Pickens, Batesville.
Izard	T. H. Linn, Melbourne.
Jackson	W. M. Shaver (supt.), Tuckerman.
Jefferson	A. W. Lowe, Pine Bluff.
Johnson	J. W. Sallis, Clarksville.
Lafayette	J. F. Bright, Lewisville.
Lawrence	E. E. Hulen, Imboden.
Lee	T. A. Futrall (supt.), Marianna.
Lincoln	W. A. Fish, Star City.
Little River	L. E. Quinn, Ashdown.
Logan	H. W. Irby, Blue Mountain.
Logan	D. E. Johnson, Paris.
Lonoke	E. R. Robinson, Lonoke.
Madison	T. C. Wiggins, Huntsville.
Marion	O. J. Carson, Yellville.
Miller	John Winham (supt.), Texarkana.
Mississippi	J. D. Swift (supt.), Blytheville.
Monroe	David Bowen, Brinkley.
Montgomery	Ernest Berry, Mount Ida.
Nevada	R. D. Martin, Emmet.
Newton	J. T. Greenhaw, Mount Judea.
Ouachita	J. J. Tibbits, Eagle Mills.
Perry	W. B. Loudermilk, Adona.
Phillips	W. G. Dinning, Helena.
Pike	J. H. Webb, Delight.
Poinsett	H. B. Thorn (supt.), Harrisburg.
Polk	W. T. Adams, Mena.
Pope	E. H. Shinn, Russellville.
Prairie	T. C. Griffin, Hickory Plains.
Pulaski	R. H. Parham, Little Rock (1301 Welch Street).
Randolph	E. W. Thompson, Pocahontas.
Saline	W. J. Canaday, Benton.
Scott	C. Henderson, Waldron.
Searcy	J. M. McCall, Leslie.
Sebastian	J. B. Williamson (supt.), Greenwood.
Sevier	G. A. Sullards, De Queen.
Sharp	O. C. Shaver, Evening Shade.
Sharp	Marvin Stephens, Ash Flat.

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[1] Superintendents and county examiners.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
ARKANSAS—contd.	
St. Francis	J. M. Wilson, Caldwell.
Stone	Hugh Williamson, Mountain View.
Union	A. D. Murphy, Mount Holly.
Van Buren	J. N. O'Neal, Copeland.
Washington	W. F. Buck, West Fork.
White	J. F. Boggs, Pangburn.
Woodruff	A. L Hutchins, Augusta.
Yell	D. F. Montgomery, Danville.
Yell	H. C. Scott, Dardanelle.
Woodruff	J. W. Simmons, Cotton Plant.
CALIFORNIA.	
Alameda	Geo. W. Frick, Oakland.
Alpine	Mrs. E. A. Grover, Markleeville.
Amador	W. H. Greenhalgh, Jackson.
Butte	Mrs. Minnie Abrams, Oroville.
Calaveras	Frank Wells, San Andreas.
Colusa	Mrs. F. M. Rhodes, Colusa.
Contra Costa	W. H. Hanlon, Martinez.
Del Norte	Jos. M. Hamilton, Crescent City.
El Dorado	S. B. Wilson, Placerville.
Fresno	E. W. Lindsay, Fresno.
Glenn	S. M. Chaney, Willows.
Humboldt	G. Underwood, Eureka.
Imperial	L. E. Cooley, El Centro.
Inyo	Mrs. M. A. Clarke, Bishop.
Kern	R. L. Stockton, Bakersfield.
Kings	Mrs. N. E. Davidson, Hanford.
Lake	Hettie Irwin, Lakeport.
Lassen	W. B. Philliber, Susanville.
Los Angeles	Mark Keppel, Los Angeles.
Madera	Craig Cunningham, Madera.
Marin	Jas. B. Davidson, San Rafael.
Mariposa	J. L. Dexter, Hornitos.
Mendocino	L. W. Babcock, Ukiah.
Merced	Margaret Sheehy, Merced.
Modoc	Mrs. N. B. Harris, Alturas.
Mono	Mrs. C. E. Hays Dolan, Bridgeport.
Monterey	A. J. Hennessy, Salinas.
Napa	Margaret M. Melvin, Napa.
Nevada	R. J. Fitzgerald, Nevada City.
Orange	R. P. Mitchell, Santa Ana.
Placer	Preston W. Smith, Auburn.
Plumas	Mrs. M. A. Hall, Quincy.
Riverside	Raymond Cree, Riverside.
Sacramento	Mrs. Minnie O'Neil, Sacramento.
San Benito	W. J. Cagney, Hollister.
San Bernardino	A. S. McPherron, San Bernardino.
San Diego	H. J. Baldwin, San Diego.
San Francisco	A. Roncovieri, San Francisco.
San Joaquin	J. W. Anderson, Stockton.
San Luis Obispo	W. S. Wight, San Luis Obispo.
San Mateo	R. W. Cloud, Redwood City.
Santa Barbara	Mamie V. Lehner, Santa Barbara.
Santa Clara	D. T. Bateman, San Jose.
Santa Cruz	C S. Price, Santa Cruz.
Shasta	Lulu E. White, Redding.
Sierra	Belle Alexander, Downieville.
Siskiyou	Willis H. Parker, Yreka.
Solano	D. H. White, Fairfield.
Sonoma	Florence M. Barnes, Santa Rosa.
Stanislaus	Florence Boggs, Modesto.
Sutter	H. W. Heiken, Yuba City.
Tehama	Delia D. Fish, Red Bluff.
Trinity	Mrs. M. Aldrich, Weaverville.
Tulare	J. E. Buckman, Visalia.
CALIFORNIA—contd.	
Tuolumne	G. P. Morgan, Columbia.
Ventura	Jas. E. Reynolds, Ventura.
Yolo	Mrs. J. A. Henshall, Woodland.
Yuba	Wm. P. Cramsie, Marysville.
COLORADO.	
Adams	Mrs. M. I. Decatur, Brighton.
Arapahoe	Mrs. M. F. Eddy, Littleton.
Archuleta	Mrs. M. M. Mote, Pagosa Springs.
Baca	R. M. Anderson, Springfield.
Bent	Miss B. E. Miter, Las Animas.
Boulder	J. H. Shriber, Boulder.
Chaffee	H. L. McGinnis, Buena Vista.
Cheyenne	Mrs. E. M. Johnstone, Cheyenne Wells.
Clear Creek	Mrs. Ella R. Adams, Georgetown.
Conejos	Fred T. Christensen, Sanford.
Costilla	Miss Mae McCormick, San Luis.
Crowley	E. N. Freeman, Ordway.
Custer	Asa P. Dickson, Westcliffe.
Delta	Miss Bel McMichael, Delta.
Denver	Mrs. M. C. C. Bradford, Denver.
Dolores	Mrs. Abi Q. Maas, Rico.
Douglas	C. A. Bent, Castle Rock.
Eagle	J. H. Troendly, Gypsum.
Elbert	Mrs. C. M. Keirn, Kiowa.
El Paso	Mrs. I. J. Lewis, Colorado Springs.
Fremont	Miss Mabel Curran, Canon City.
Garfield	Mrs. T. Westerman, Glenwood Springs.
Gilpin	Mrs. I. F. Mabee, Central City.
Grand	Mrs. F. I. deBerard, Granby.
Gunnison	Miss S. B. Easterly, Gunnison.
Hinsdale	Mrs. Sarah A. Hunt, Lake City.
Huerfano	Dr. C. D. Lesher, Walsenburg.
Jackson	Miss Nellie R. Affolter, Walden.
Jefferson	Miss E. Hemberger, Golden.
Kiowa	Miss M. E. Corbet, Eads.
Kit Carson	Miss J. L. Tressel, Burlington.
Lake	Mrs. Ollie I. Vivian, Leadville.
La Plata	Mrs. R. C. Pulford, Durango.
Larimer	Miss Pearl L. Moore, Fort Collins.
Las Animas	J. M. Madrid, Trinidad.
Lincoln	H. V. Matthews, Hugo.
Logan	Miss Anna Walek, Sterling.
Mesa	C. G. Sargent, Grand Junction.
Mineral	Miss Z. C. Daugherty, Creede.
Moffat	G. L. Bushyager, Craig.
Montezuma	Mrs. H. Durward, Cortez.
Montrose	Miss Mary Abernethy, Montrose.
Morgan	Mrs. H. M. Simpson, Fort Morgan.
Otero	S. S. Phillips, La Junta.
Ouray	Miss E. McIntosh, Ouray.
Park	Miss I. R. Geddes, Jefferson.
Phillips	Charles R. Peter, Holyoke.
Pitkin	Miss A. B. Canning, Aspen.
Prowers	Mrs. N. R. Reed, Lamar.
Pueblo	Miss N. Corkish, Pueblo.
Rio Blanco	Mrs. S. D. Lyttle, Meeker.
Rio Grande	Chas. E. Hart, Monte Vista.
Routt	George W. Smith, Hayden.
Saguache	J. C. Freedle, Saguache.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
COLORADO—contd.	
San Juan	Mrs. J. M. Harwood, Silverton.
San Miguel	Miss E. Welch, Telluride.
Sedgwick	Mrs. Ella W. Babcock, Julesburg.
Summit	Miss Lily Guyselman, Breckenridge.
Teller	Miss M. V. Donahue, Cripple Creek.
Washington	Mrs. Mary P. Fischer, Akron.
Weld	W. C. Thomas, Greeley.
Yuma	Miss Clara V. Tegner, Wray.
DELAWARE.	
Kent	James E. Carroll, Dover.
Newcastle	A. R. Spaid, Wilmington.
Sussex	Ernest J. Hardesty, Georgetown.
FLORIDA.	
Alachua	J. L. Kelley, Gainesville.
Baker	W. R. Simmons, Macclenny.
Bradford	J. C. Poppell, Starke.
Brevard	J. R. Walker, Titusville.
Calhoun	P. F. Fisher, Frink.
Citrus	R. L. Turner, Inverness.
Clay	W. H. Biggs, Green Cove Springs.
Columbia	J. W. Burns, Lake City.
Dade	R. E. Hall, Miami.
DeSoto	W. B. Hare, Arcadia.
Duval	J. Q. Palmer, Jacksonville.
Escambia	N. B. Cook, Pensacola.
Franklin	A. A. Core, Apalachicola.
Gadsden	J. R. Key, Quincy.
Hamilton	J. A. Jackson, Jasper.
Hernando	W. A. Thaxton, Brooksville.
Hillsborough	L. W. Buchholz, Tampa.
Holmes	C. A. Fulford, Bonifay.
Jackson	C. C. Gunn, Marianna.
Jefferson	B. J. Hamrick, Monticello.
Lafayette	W. R. Fletcher, Mayo.
Lake	W. T. Kennedy, Umatilla.
Lee	D. W. Sumner, Fort Myers.
Leon	Edw. B. Eppes, Tallahassee.
Levy	Tom W. Price, Bronson.
Liberty	J. E. Roberts, Bristol.
Madison	G. W. Tedder, Madison.
Manatee	L. L. Hine, Bradentown.
Marion	J. H. Brinson, Ocala.
Monroe,	Virgil S. Lowe, Key West.
Nassau	L. L. Owens, Fernandina.
Orange	J. F. McKinnon, Orlando.
Osceola	W. J. Sears, Kissimmee.
Palm Beach	H. W. Lewis, West Palm Beach.
Pasco	M. L. Gilbert, Dade City.
Pinellas	Dixie M. Hollins, Clearwater.
Polk	T. B. Kirk, Bartow.
Putnam	L. K. Tucker, Palatka.
St. Johns	W. S. M. Pinkham, St. Augustine.
St. Lucie	W. J. Hodge, Fort Pierce.
Santa Rosa	J. T. Diamond, Milton.
Sumter	G. H. Tompkins, Sumterville.
Suwannee	J. W. O'Hara, Live Oak.
Taylor	W. A. Hendry, Perry.
Volusia	A. O. Botts, De Land.
Wakulla	C. K. Allen, Crawfordville.
Walton	Dan N. Trotman, De Funiak Springs.
Washington	B. F. Gainer, Vernon.
GEORGIA.	
Appling	H. J. Parker, Baxley.
Baker	J. H. Hall, Newton.
Baldwin	N. H. Bullard, Milledgeville.
Banks	J. T. Wise, Baldwin.
Bartow	Henry Milam, Cartersville.
Ben Hill	R. J. Prentiss, Fitzgerald.
Berrien	W. G. Avera, Nashville.
Bibb	C. H. Bruce, Macon.
Brooks	John F. McCall, Quitman.
Bryan	Edward Benton, Letford.
Bulloch	B. R. Olliff, Statesboro.
Burke	E. B. Gresham, Waynesboro.
Butts	C. S. Maddox, Jackson.
Calhoun	B. W. Fortson, Arlington.
Camden	T. E. Casey, St. Marys.
Campbell	W. H. McLarin, Fairburn.
Carroll	E. T. Steed, Carrollton.
Catoosa	Ansel M. Bandy, Ringgold.
Charlton	L. E. Mallard, Folkston.
Chatham	Otis Ashmore, Savannah.
Chattahoochee	C. N. Howard, Cusseta.
Chattooga	S. E. Jones, Summerville.
Cherokee	T. A. Doss, Canton.
Clarke	T. H. Dozier, Athens.
Clay	E. R. King, Fort Gaines.
Clayton	J. H. Huie, Forest Park.
Clinch	F. C. Dame, Homerville.
Cobb	Bernard Awtrey, Marietta.
Coffee	J. H. Williams, Douglas.
Colquitt	Lee S. Dismuke, Moultrie.
Columbia	J. L. Weeks, Grovetown.
Coweta	J. E. Pendergrast, Newnan.
Crawford	J. N. Andrews, Roberta.
Crisp	J. W. Bivins, Cordele.
Dade	G. A. R. Bible, Rising Fawn, R. F. D. 2.
Dawson	E. L. Fowler, Dawsonville.
Decatur	J. S. Bradwell, Bainbridge.
De Kalb	R. E. Carroll, Decatur.
Dodge	M. W. Harrell, Eastman.
Dooly	E. G. Greene, Vienna.
Dougherty	R. H. Warren, Albany.
Douglas	G. T. McLarty, Douglasville.
Early	E. A. Evans, Blakely.
Echols	J. G. Prine, Statenville.
Effingham	A. E. Byrd, Guyton.
Elbert	T. J. Cleveland, Elberton.
Emanuel	Robert E. Rountree, Swainsboro.
Fannin	J. W. Hughes, Mineral Bluff.
Fayette	W. N. D. Dixon, Fayetteville.
Floyd	J. C. King, Rome.
Forsyth	C. L. Harris, Cumming.
Franklin	J. W. McFarland, Carnesville.
Fulton	E. C. Merry, Atlanta.
Gilmer	J. S. Hudson, Ellijay.
Glascock	E. B. Rogers, Gibson.
Glynn	N. H. Ballard, Brunswick.
Gordon	Ernest Dillard, Calhoun.
Grady	J. S. Weathers, Cairo.
Greene	W. A. Purks, White Plains.
Gwinnett	C. R. Ware, Lawrenceville.
Habersham	P. R. Ivie, Clarkesville.
Hall	H. F. Wood, Gainesville.
Hancock	J. L. McClesky, Sparta.
Haralson	John W. White, Buchanan.
Harris	T. L. Thomason, Chipley.
Hart	W. B. Morris, Hartwell.
Heard	Hope H. Cook, Cooksville.
Henry	O. O. Tolleson, McDonough.
Houston	F. M. Greene, Perry.
Irwin	J. W. Weaver, Ocilla.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
GEORGIA—contd.	
Jackson	L. F. Elrod, Jefferson.
Jasper	J. M. Elizer, Monticello.
Jeff Davis	T. J. Ellis, Hazelhurst.
Jefferson	H. E. Smith, Bartow.
Jenkins	W. V. Lanier, Millen.
Johnson	R. L. Sumner, Wrightsville.
Jones	E. W. Sammons, Gray.
Laurens	Z. Whitehurst, Dublin.
Lee	A. M. Howell, Leesburg.
Liberty	E. B. Way, Flemington.
Lincoln	Dr. W. B. Crawford, Lincolnton.
Lowndes	J. H. O'Quinn, Valdosta.
Lumpkin	J. J. Seabolt, Dahlonega.
Macon	J. P. Nelson, Oglethorpe.
Madison	J. A. Griffith, Danielsville.
Marion	T. B. Rainey, Buena Vista.
McDuffie	M. W. Dunn, Thomson.
McIntosh	C. M. Tyson, Darien.
Meriwether	W. S. Howell, Greenville.
Miller	B. B. Bush, Colquitt.
Milton	Wm. Rhodes, Alpharetta.
Mitchell	J. H. Powell, Camilla.
Monroe	T. H. Phinazee, Forsyth.
Montgomery	A. B. Hutcheson, Mount Vernon.
Morgan	E. S. Bird, Madison.
Murray	R. Noel Steed, Spring Place.
Muscogee	J. L. Bond, Columbus.
Newton	J. O. Martin, Covington.
Oconee	J. W. McWhorter, Watkinsville.
Oglethorpe	M. S. Weaver, Lexington.
Paulding	H. C. Scoggins, Dallas.
Pickens	C. H. Cox, Jasper.
Pierce	R. D. Thomas, Blackshear.
Pike	G. B. Ridley, Zebulon.
Polk	Geo. E. Benedict, Cedartown.
Pulaski	F. B. Asbell, Hawkinsville.
Putnam	W. C. Wright, Eatonton.
Quitman	H. M. Kaigler, Georgetown.
Rabun	L. M. Chastain, Burton.
Randolph	Walter McMichael, Cuthbert.
Richmond	Lawton B. Evans, Augusta.
Rockdale	T. D. O'Kelly, Conyers.
Schley	E. L. Bridges, Ellaville.
Screven	H. J. Arnett, Sylvania.
Spalding	J. O. A. Miller, Pomona.
Stephens	J. I. Allman, Toccoa.
Stewart	W. T. Halliday, Lumpkin.
Sumter	W. S. Moore, Americus.
Talbot	H. P. Hewitt, Talbotton.
Taliaferro	S. J. Flynt, Sharon.
Tattnall	I. S. Smith, Reidsville.
Taylor	A. S. Wallace, Butler.
Telfair	T. P. Windsor, McRae.
Terrell	J. W. F. Lowrey, Dawson.
Thomas	J. S. Searcy, Thomasville.
Tift	R. F. Kersey, Tifton.
Toombs	G. C. Brantley, Lyons.
Towns	R. A. Kimsey, Hiawassee.
Troup	J. B. Strong, Lagrange.
Turner	J. T. Moore, Sycamore.
Twiggs	B. S. Fitzpatrick, Fitzpatrick.
Union	T. L. Patterson, Blairsville.
Upson	J. A. Thurston, Thomaston.
Walker	R. D. Love, La Fayette.
Walton	R. L. Paine, Social Circle.
Ware	J. R. Bourn, Waycross.
Warren	R. W. Ware, Camak.
Washington	J. C. Harman, Sandersville.
Wayne	B. D. Purcell, Jesup.
Webster	J. F. Souter, Preston.
GEORGIA—contd.	
White	T. V. Cantrell, Jr., Cleveland.
Whitfield	J. C. Sapp, Dalton.
Wilcox	E. S. Hamilton, Abbeville.
Wilkes	C. H. Calhoun, Washington.
Wilkinson	J. H. Hoover, Irwinton.
Worth	Walter R. Sumner, Sylvester.
IDAHO.	
Ada	Miss Ivy Wilson, Boise.
Adams	J. D. Neale, Council.
Bannock	Mrs. A. G. Cosgrove, Pocatello.
Bear Lake	Alfred A. Hart, Paris.
Bingham	Miss Alice Beach, Blackfoot.
Blaine	Mrs. B. H. Black, Hailey.
Boise	Miss Blanche Besecker, Idaho City.
Bonner	Mrs. Nell K. Irion, Sandpoint.
Bonneville	Miss Ella M. Miller, Idaho Falls.
Canyon	Miss M. G. Carleton, Caldwell.
Cassia	David G. Parker, Albion.
Clearwater	Miss Maude Mix, Orofino.
Custer	Miss J. E. Kelleher, Challis.
Elmore	Miss Katie L. Brady, Mountain Home.
Fremont	Miss H. C. Wood, St. Anthony.
Idaho	P. M. Glanville, Grangeville.
Kootenai	Miss Emma A. Rauch, Coeur d'Alene.
Latah	Miss C. Bryden, Moscow.
Lemhi	Mrs. E. McDonald-Sims, Salmon.
Lewis	Miss E. Henderson, Nezperce.
Lincoln	Mrs. L. Burnside, Shoshone.
Nezperce	Miss Etta Brown, Lewiston.
Oneida	Henry Simpson, Malad City.
Owyhee	Mrs. J. Avery, Silver City.
Shoshone	Miss Frances Wilson, Wallace.
Twin Falls	Thos. W. Potter, Twin Falls.
Washington	Miss Mary Z. Harper, Weiser.
ILLINOIS.	
Adams	John H. Steiner, Quincy.
Alexander	Fanny P. Hacker, Cairo.
Bond	H. A. Meyer, Greenville.
Boone	Elizabeth B. Harvey, Belvidere.
Brown	C. W. Sellars, Mount Sterling.
Bureau	G. O. Smith, Princeton.
Calhoun	S. J. Sibley, Hardin.
Carroll	John Hay, Mount Carroll.
Cass	Henry Jacobs, Virginia.
Champaign	Charles H. Watts, Urbana.
Christian	H. L. Fowkes, Taylorville.
Clark	Harry Drake, Marshall.
Clay	G. O. Lewis, Louisville.
Clinton	Wm. Johnston, Carlyle.
Coles	W. Ed. Millar, Charleston.
Cook	E. J. Tobin, Chicago (C. H.).
Crawford	Harry E. Green, Robinson.
Cumberland	John W. Castelo, Toledo.
Dekalb	W. W. Coultas, Sycamore.
Dewitt	John L. Costley, Clinton.
Douglas	E. E. Gere, Tuscola.
Dupage	R. T. Morgan, Wheaton.
Edgar	G. W. Brown, Paris.
Edwards	W. H. Siefferman, Albion.
Effingham	J. W. Davis, Effingham.
Fayette	F. E. Crawford, Vandalia.
Ford	H. M. Rudolph, Paxton.
Franklin	C. W. Mundell, Benton.
Fulton	M. M. Cook, Lewistown.
Gallatin	J. B. Boswell, Equality.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
ILLINOIS—contd.	
Greene	G. B. McClelland, Carrollton.
Grundy	C. H. Root, Morris.
Hamilton	W. W. Daily, McLeansboro.
Hancock	S. D. Faris, Carthage.
Hardin	J. H. Oxford, Elizabethtown.
Henderson	Mrs. D. Yeomans, Biggsville.
Henry	A. L. Odenweller, Cambridge.
Iroquois	F. A. Gilbreath, Watseka.
Jackson	A. J. Rendleman, Murphysboro.
Jasper	Milo D. Yelvington, Newton.
Jefferson	A. Summers, Mount Vernon.
Jersey	J. W. Roberts, Jerseyville.
Jo Daviess	B. L. Birkbeck, Galena.
Johnson	Emma Rebman, Vienna.
Kane	E. A. Ellis, Geneva.
Kankakee	S. D. Saltzgiver, Kankakee.
Kendall	A. D. Curran, Bristol.
Knox	W. F. Boyes, Galesburg.
Lake	T. A. Simpson, Waukegan.
Lasalle	W. R. Foster, Ottawa.
Lawrence	R. R. Kimmell, Lawrenceville.
Lee	L. W. Miller, Dixon.
Livingston	W. E. Herbert, Pontiac.
Logan	D. F. Nickols, Lincoln.
Macon	Mary W. Moore, Decatur.
Macoupin	R. C. Moore, Carlinville.
Madison	J. U. Uzzell, Edwardsville.
Marion	J. F. Hickman, Salem.
Marshall	E. F. Perry, Lacon.
Mason	Mrs. F. S. Merwin, Havana.
Massac	W. A. Spence, Metropolis.
McDonough	B. E. Decker, Macomb.
McHenry	A. M. Shelton, Crystal Lake.
McLean	B. C. Moore, Bloomington.
Menard	Mrs. E. B. Batterton, Petersburg.
Mercer	C. L. Gregory, Aledo.
Monroe	J. W. Jackson, Waterloo.
Montgomery	J. W. Harp, Hillsboro.
Morgan	H. C. Montgomery, Jacksonville.
Moultrie	V. D. Roughton, Sullivan.
Ogle	J. E. Cross, Oregon.
Peoria	J. A. Hayes, Peoria.
Perry	Elmo W. Lee, Pinckneyville.
Piatt	Chas. McIntosh, Monticello.
Pike	D. P. Hollis, Pittsfield.
Pope	R. R. Randolph, Golconda.
Pulaski	May S. Hawkins, Mound City.
Putnam	W. A. Paxson, Hennepin.
Randolph	W. F. Stine, Chester.
Richland	Elmer Van Arsdall, Olney.
Rock Island	S. J. Ferguson, Rock Island.
Saline	R. E. Rhine, Harrisburg.
Sangamon	E. C. Pruitt, Springfield.
Schuyler	G. R. Hermetet, Rushville.
Scott	J. C. Moore, Winchester.
Shelby	Lee W. Frazer, Shelbyville.
Stark	G. C. Baker, Toulon.
St. Clair	W. A. Hough, Belleville.
Stephenson	Cyrus Grove, Freeport.
Tazewell	Ben L. Smith, Pekin.
Union	W. O. Brown, Jonesboro.
Vermilion	Otis P. Haworth, Danville.
Wabash	S. A. Mayne, Mount Carmel.
Warren	J. D. Regan, Monmouth.
Washington	Robert Pence, Nashville.
Wayne	W. G. Cisne, Fairfield.
White	V. W. Smith, Carmi.
Whiteside	B. F. Hendricks, Morrison.
Will	W. H. Nevens, Joliet.
Williamson	R. O. Clarida, Marion.
ILLINOIS—contd.	
Winnebago	O. J. Kern, Rockford.
Woodford	Roy L. Moore, Eureka.
INDIANA.	
Adams	L. E. Opliger, Decatur.
Allen	Henry G. Felger, Fort Wayne.
Bartholomew	C. E. Talkington, Columbus.
Benton	C. H. Dodson, Fowler.
Blackford	M. C. Townsend, Hartford City.
Boone	E. M. Servies, Lebanon.
Brown	Sylvester Barnes, Nashville.
Carroll	P. B. Hemmig, Delphi.
Cass	A. L. Frantz, Logansport.
Clark	Saml. L. Scott, Jeffersonville.
Clay	Willis E. Akre, Brazil.
Clinton	M. W. Salmon, Frankfort.
Crawford	Stuart A. Beals, English.
Daviess	A. O. Fulkerson, Washington.
Dearborn	Geo. C. Cole, Lawrenceburg.
Decatur	Frank C. Fields, Greensburg.
Dekalb	Lida Leasure, Auburn.
Delaware	Ernest J. Black, Muncie.
Dubois	William Melchior, Jasper.
Elkhart	A. E. Weaver, Goshen.
Fayette	C. L. Trusler, Connersville.
Floyd	Glenn V. Scott, New Albany.
Fountain	M. F. Livengood, Covington.
Franklin	T. J. McCarty, Brookville.
Fulton	Henry L. Becker, Rochester.
Gibson	Wilbur F. Fisher, Princeton.
Grant	Charles H. Terrell, Marion.
Greene	D. C. McIntosh, Bloomfield.
Hamilton	John F. Haines, Noblesville.
Hancock	G. J. Richman, Greenfield.
Harrison	A. O. Deweese, Corydon.
Hendricks	Theo. T. Martin, Danville.
Henry	H. B. Roberts, Newcastle.
Howard	Albert F. Hutson, Kokomo.
Huntington	C. Funderburg, Huntington.
Jackson	J. E. Payne, Brownstown.
Jasper	Ernest Lamson, Rensselaer.
Jay	W. R. Armstrong, Portland.
Jefferson	Joseph H. Hanna, Madison.
Jennings	S. E. Whitcomb, Vernon.
Johnson	Jesse C. Webb, Franklin.
Knox	E. N. Haskins, Vincennes.
Kosciusko	E. B. Sarber, Warsaw.
Lagrange	F. G. Smeltzly, Lagrange.
Lake	F. F. Heighway, Crown Point
Laporte	Fred R. Farnam, Laporte.
Lawrence	L. B. Sanders, Bedford.
Madison	J. W. Frazier, Anderson.
Marion	Lee E. Swails, Indianapolis.
Marshall	L. E. Steinebach, Plymouth.
Martin	C. O. Williams, Shoals.
Miami	E. B. Wetherow, Peru.
Monroe	W. H. Jones, Bloomington.
Montgomery	Otis E. Hall, Crawfordsville.
Morgan	W. D. Curtis, Martinsville.
Newton	W. O. Schanlaub, Kentland.
Noble	W. A. Beane, Albion.
Ohio	C. H. French, Rising Sun.
Orange	C. E. Cogswell, Paoli.
Owen	W. H. Stone, Spencer.
Parke	H. J. Skeeters, Rockville.
Perry	Leo B. Mullen, Cannelton.
Pike	Andrew Jewell, Petersburg.
Porter	Fred H. Cole, Valparaiso.
Posey	W. O. Wilson, Mount Vernon.
Pulaski	H. L. Rogers, Winamac.
Putnam	L. G. Wright, Greencastle.
Randolph	Lee L. Driver, Winchester.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
INDIANA—contd.	
Ripley	C. R. Hertenstein, Versailles.
Rush	C. M. George, Rushville.
Scott	W. S. Griffith, Scottsburg.
Shelby	W. Everson, Shelbyville.
Spencer	J. W. Strassell, Rockport.
Starke	C. W. Cannon, Knox.
St. Joseph	Ralph Longfield, South Bend.
Steuben	H. Lyle Shank, Angola.
Sullivan	Richard Park, Sullivan.
Switzerland	O. M. Given, Vevay.
Tippecanoe	Brainard Hooker, Lafayette.
Tipton	L. D. Summers, Tipton.
Union	Chas. C. Abernathy, Liberty.
Vanderburg	F. C. Ragland, Evansville.
Vermilion	John B. Butler, Newport.
Vigo	J. W. Propst, Terre Haute.
Wabash	R. K. Devricks, Wabash.
Warren	Harry Evans, Williamsport.
Warrick	A. J. Hopkins, Boonville.
Washington	Orra Hopper, Salem.
Wayne	C. O. Williams, Richmond.
Wells	A. R. Huyette, Bluffton.
White	Henry J. Reid, Monticello.
Whitley	A. R. Fleck, Columbia City.
IOWA.	
Adair	Adaline Brooks, Greenfield.
Adams	M. H. Dampman, Corning.
Allamakee	W. L. Peck, Waukon.
Appanoose	Mrs. S. S. Webster, Centerville.
Audubon	Ella M. Sterns, Audubon.
Benton	Minnie Schloeman, Vinton.
Black Hawk	Harry A. Moore, Waterloo.
Boone	Gracia E. Tucker, Boone.
Bremer	Mary Cretzmeyer, Waverly.
Buchanan	G. R. Lockwood, Independence.
Buena Vista	J. A. Woodruff, Storm Lake.
Butler	Mary A. Faint, Allison.
Calhoun	Emma Keller, Rockwell City.
Carroll	W. T. Bohnenkamp, Carroll.
Cass	Bertha A. Johnson, Atlantic.
Cedar	Ruby I. Lewis, Tipton.
Cerro Gordo	C. T. Benson, Mason City.
Cherokee	Kate R. Logan, Cherokee.
Chickasaw	E. J. Feuling, New Hampton.
Clarke	Bessie Hart, Osceola.
Clay	Mary E. Riley, Spencer.
Clayton	Thos. R. Roberts, Elkader.
Clinton	George E. Farrell, Clinton.
Crawford	F. N. Olry, Denison.
Dallas	Carolyn Forgrave, Adel.
Davis	C. N. Spicer, Bloomfield.
Decatur	J. W. Long, Leon.
Delaware	G. D. Ribble, Manchester.
Des Moines	F. W. Parrott, Burlington.
Dickinson	Jennie Bailey, Spirit Lake.
Dubuque	Harry B. Smith, Dubuque.
Emmet	T. J. Lerdall, Estherville.
Fayette	R. H. Belknap, West Union.
Floyd	E. A. Sheldon, Charles City.
Franklin	J. A. Iverson, Hampton.
Fremont	Della Simons, Sidney.
Greene	A. J. Oblinger, Jefferson.
Grundy	A. M. Gray, Grundy Center.
Guthrie	O. G. Hamilton, Guthrie Center.
Hamilton	E. F. Snow, Webster City.
Hancock	J. R. Baggs, Garner.
Hardin	Julia Scurry, Eldora.
Harrison	Mrs. Susie Faith, Logan.
IOWA—contd.	
Henry	Lincoln Antrim, Mount Pleasant.
Howard	Emma Fallgatter, Cresco.
Humboldt	Clarence Messer, Humboldt.
Ida	Wilson Jones, Ida Grove.
Iowa	Mary F. McEachron, Marengo.
Jackson	E. R. Stoddard, Maquoketa.
Jasper	Olive Shriner, Newton.
Jefferson	June Chidester, Fairfield.
Johnson	Claude M. Miller, Iowa City.
Jones	Kate Maurice, Anamosa.
Keokuk	H. S. McVicker, Sigourney.
Kossuth	Sid J. Backus, Algona.
Lee	Alee W. Rakow, West Point.
Linn	A. B. Alderman, Marion.
Louisa	R. R. Hunt, Wapello.
Lucas	Myrtle A. Dungan, Chariton.
Lyon	E. T. Gilman, Rock Rapids.
Madison	John Gentry, Winterset.
Mahaska	Chas. H. Young, Oskaloosa.
Marion	Nora E. White, Knoxville.
Marshall	Mary E. Hostetler, Marshalltown.
Mills	G. E. Masters, Glenwood.
Mitchell	H. E. La Rue, Osage.
Monona	Ella M. Gardner, Onawa.
Monroe	Myrta Harlow, Albia.
Montgomery	Clara L. Cowgill, Red Oak.
Muscatine	M. F. Cronin, Muscatine.
O'Brien	J. J. Billingsly, Primghar.
Osceola	Mary De Boos, Sibley.
Page	Jessie Field, Clarinda.
Palo Alto	Lille Patton, Emmetsburg.
Plymouth	Anna Donahue, Le Mars.
Pocahontas	W. P. Jensen, Pocahontas.
Polk	Mrs. J. Steele-Huegle, Des Moines.
Pottawattamie	F. J. Puryear, Council Bluffs.
Poweshiek	Sarah Carpenter, Montezuma.
Ringgold	Etta J. Rider, Mount Ayr.
Sac	John R. Slacks, Sac City.
Scott	Henry E. Ronge, Davenport.
Shelby	Rose M. Parker, Harlan.
Sioux	F. E. Fuller, Orange City.
Story	I. J. Scott, Nevada.
Tama	Mary A. Richards, Toledo.
Taylor	Della Griffin, Bedford.
Union	Mrs. Sylvia Cook, Creston.
Van Buren	Lizzie Meredith, Keosauqua.
Wapello	Mrs. E. Burgess, Ottumwa.
Warren	W. M. McGee, Indianola.
Washington	Minnie R. Connor, Washington.
Wayne	Mrs. A. K. Pittard, Corydon.
Webster	Mary A. Carey, Fort Dodge.
Winnebago	L. C. Brown, Forest City.
Winneshiek	Sigurd Reque, Decorah.
Woodbury	T. B. Morris, Sioux City.
Worth	O. E. Gunderson, Northwood.
Wright	M. L. Howel, Clarion.
KANSAS.	
Allen	Mrs. E. W. Myler, Iola.
Anderson	Miss H. E. Woods, Garnett.
Atchison	J. A. Shoemaker, Atchison.
Barber	Miss M. Kernohan, Medicine Lodge.
Barton	Miss J. Momyer, Great Bend.
Bourbon	Miss M. Stewart, Fort Scott.
Brown	Miss R. D. Kiner, Hiawatha.
Butler	C. F. Smith, El Dorado.
Chase	Miss A. E. Arnold, Cottonwood Falls.
Chautauqua	Miss B. L. Butcher, Sedan.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
KANSAS—contd.	
Cherokee	E. E. Stonecipher, Columbus.
Cheyenne	Miss N. Maxson, St. Francis.
Clark	Miss Maggie Myers, Ashland.
Clay	T. C. Coffman, Clay Center.
Cloud	Miss O. Woodward, Concordia.
Coffey	Miss C. L. Tompkins, Burlington.
Comanche	Miss Nellie Botts, Coldwater.
Cowley	Miss M. M. Adams, Winfield.
Crawford	J. W. Miley, Girard.
Decatur	M. T. Barnett, Oberlin.
Dickinson	W. O. Steen, Abilene.
Doniphan	C. I. Vinsonhaler, Troy.
Douglas	C. R. Hawley, Lawrence.
Edwards	M. D. Weltner, Kinsley.
Elk	Ed Adams, Howard.
Ellis	Anthony Kuhn, Hays.
Ellsworth	H. Coover, Ellsworth.
Finney	Lewis Keeler, Garden City.
Ford	Miss E. Nevins, Dodge City.
Franklin	Miss E. J. McCoy, Ottawa.
Geary	Miss O. H. Milley, Junction City.
Gove	Mrs. E. C. Sites, Gove.
Graham	Mrs. L. J. Wilson, Hill City.
Grant	Miss L. M. Doggett, New Ulysses.
Gray	Mrs. A. D. Erskine, Cimarron.
Greeley	A. R. Simpson, Tribune.
Greenwood	E. E. Brown, Eureka.
Hamilton	Mrs. Etta Rummel, Syracuse.
Harper	R. M. Elam, Anthony.
Harvey	Miss Ruth Mitten, Newton.
Haskell	C. G. Mize, Santa Fe.
Hodgeman	Mrs. M. L. Sterrett, Jetmore.
Jackson	W. S. Scneder, Holton.
Jefferson	Geo. L. McClenny, Oskaloosa.
Jewell	O. M. Chilcott, Mankato.
Johnson	Miss Emma Skinner, Olathe.
Kearny	Miss A. T. Harkness, Lakin.
Kingman	A. R. Hansmann, Kingman.
Kiowa	C. E. Cooke, Greensburg.
Labette	Miss Ida B. Marley, Oswego.
Lane	Joseph M. Shull, Dighton.
Leavenworth	J. B. Kelsey, Leavenworth.
Lincoln	John F. Jennings, Lincoln.
Linn	Miss L. Potter, Mound City.
Logan	Mrs. Estelle M. Smith, Russell Springs.
Lyon	Mrs. F. Vickrey, Emporia.
Marion	James A. Ray, Marion.
Marshall	C. E. Drumm, Marysville.
McPherson	G. Edgecomb, McPherson.
Meade	Mrs. Mattie Haigh, Meade.
Miami	Miss Minnie Walker, Paola.
Mitchell	Miss A. U. Hitchcock, Beloit.
Montgomery	J. G. Smith, Independence.
Morris	E. M. Jones, Council Grove.
Morton	W. F. Craddock, Richfield.
Nemaha	W. R. Anthony, Seneca.
Neosho	W. R. Willis, Erie.
Ness	Miss E. Hamilton, Ness City.
Norton	D. O. Hemphill, Norton.
Osage	Miss M. K. Williams, Lyndon.
Osborne	A. B. Dillon, Osborne.
Ottawa	H. E. Kilbourne, Minneapolis.
Pawnee	Miss Ida B. Curtis, Larned.
Phillips	Miss N. Barber, Phillipsburg.
Pottawatomie	G. F. Richardson, Westmoreland.
Pratt	Mrs. M. O. Haskins, Pratt.
Rawlins	Abraham Davis, Atwood.
Reno	S. P. Rowland, Hutchinson.
Republic	W. M. Slopansky, Belleville.
Rice	Miss Sylvia Burgess, Lyons.
Riley	Miss H. A. Wetzig, Manhattan.
Rooks	J. W. Smith, Stockton.
Rush	Harry T. Fish, La Crosse.
Russell	T. W. Wells, Russell.
Saline	W. E. Connelly, Salina.
Scott	Miss Lela Haworth, Scott.
Sedgwick	J. W. Swaney, Wichita.
Seward	Mrs. Mary E. Todd, Liberal.
Shawnee	John F. Eby, Topeka.
Sheridan	Fred E. Bear, Hoxie.
Sherman	J. P. Phillips, Goodland.
Smith	John J. Haney, Smith Center.
Stafford	Miss M. Spickard, St. John.
Stanton	Miss Martha Doll, Johnson.
Stevens	C. A. Thompson, Hugoton.
Sumner	Lee Harrison, Wellington.
Thomas	Miss Alice Bieber, Colby.
Trego	Mrs. E. P. Jones, Wa Keeney.
Wabaunsee	J. H. Houston, Alma.
Wallace	Miss Rose Gilbert, Sharon Springs.
Washington	R. L. Rust, Washington.
Wichita	Edd Case, Leoti.
Wilson	Miss Fannie Butts, Fredonia.
Woodson	Miss C. Myers, Yates Center.
Wyandotte	G. W. Phillips, Kansas City.
KENTUCKY.	
Adair	Miss Pearl Hindman, Columbia.
Allen	W. A. Whitlow, Scottsville.
Anderson	J. W. Baxter, Lawrenceburg.
Ballard	J. E. Lane, Wickliffe.
Barren	W. C. Turner, Glasgow.
Bath	Leonard Cassity, Owingsville.
Bell	Simon Delph, Middlesboro.
Boone	E. C. Riley, Burlirgton
Bourbon	Miss M. Robbins, Paris.
Boyd	W. L. Jayne, Catlettsburg.
Boyle	J. W. Rawlins, Danville.
Bracken	Wm. Huffman, Brooksville.
Breathitt	K. C. Williams, Jackson.
Breckinridge	Andrew Driskell, Hardinsburg.
Bullitt	O. L. Roby, Shepherdsville
Butler	A. L. Haynes, Morgantown.
Caldwell	Miss N. R. Catlett, Princeton.
Calloway	Miss L. Crogan, Murray.
Campbell	J. W. Reiley, Alexandria.
Carlisle	D. S. Bishop, Bardwell.
Carroll	E. Lewellyn, Carrollton.
Carter	W. C. Kozee, Grayson.
Casey	J. C. Lay, Judd.
Christian	Miss J. West, Hopkinsville.
Clark	J. E. Lanter, Winchester.
Clay	Luther Hatton, Manchester.
Clinton	Miss E. Sloan, Albany.
Crittenden	E. J. Travis, Marion.
Cumberland	J. W. Bowman, Burkesville.
Daviess	R. L. McFarland, Owensboro.
Edmonson	J. L. Clayton, Chalybeate.
Elliott	D. F. Gray, Sandy Hook.
Estill	Sherman Land, Irvine.
Fayette	Mrs. N. G. Faulconer, Lexington.
Fleming	Mrs. L. P. Williams, Ewing.
Floyd	E. V. Hall, Prestonsburg.
Franklin	E. R. Jones, Frankfort.
Fulton	Miss V. Luten, Hickman.
Gallatin	Jas. R. McDanell, Warsaw.
Garrard	Miss J. Higgins, Lancaster.
Grant	D. H. Starns, Williamstown.
Graves	W. D. Dodds, Mayfield.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
KENTUCKY—contd.	
Grayson	Miss E. Lewis, Leitchfield.
Green	Miss L. Y. Graham, Greensburg.
Greenup	J. G. Pritchard, Greenup.
Hancock	G. H. Mickel, Hawesville.
Hardin	J. L. Pilkenton, Elizabethtown.
Harlan	W. L. Bailey, Harlan.
Harrison	W. M. Barkley, Cynthiana.
Hart	E. B. Ray, Munfordsville.
Henderson	R. L. Cinnamond, Henderson.
Henry	S. L. Chandler, Newcastle.
Hickman	W. L. Best, Clinton.
Hopkins	A. J. Fox, Madisonville.
Jackson	J. J. Davis, McKee.
Jefferson	Orville Stivers, Louisville.
Jessamine	C. C. Sandusky, Nicholasville.
Johnson	Fred Meade, Paintsville.
Kenton	S. H. Kennedy, Crescent Springs.
Knott	M. M. Johnson, Hindman.
Knox	W. W. Evans, Barbourville.
Larue	E. W. Creal, Hodgenville.
Laurel	D. B. Johnson, London.
Lawrence	Jay O'Daniel, Louisa.
Lee	C. E. Tyree, Beattyville.
Leslie	Miss M. Hoskins, Hyden.
Letcher	H. C. Dixon, Whitesburg.
Lewis	W. R. Henderson, Vanceburg.
Lincoln	G. Singleton, Stanford.
Livingston	O. R. Hurley, Smithland.
Logan	P. M. Barnes, Russellville.
Lyon	C. W. Davis, Eddyville.
Madison	John Noland, Richmond
Magoffin	Miss M. B. Arnett, Salyersville.
Marion	J. W. Clarkson, Lebanon.
Marshall	John E. Arant, Benton.
Martin	U. G. Johnson, Inez.
Mason	Miss J. O. Yancey, Maysville.
McCracken	L. W. Feezor, Paducah
McLean	R. M. Stroud, Calhoun.
Meade	L. H. Powell, Brandenburg.
Menifee	W. O. Back, Frenchburg.
Mercer	Miss Ora L. Adams, Harrodsburg.
Metcalfe	J. A. Pulliam, Edmonton.
Monroe	J. E. Martin, Tompkinsville.
Montgomery	M. J. Goodwin, Mount Sterling.
Morgan	T. N. Barker, West Liberty.
Muhlenburg	J. E. Shaver, Greenville.
Nelson	W. T. McClain, Bardstown.
Nicholas	Miss L. E. Gardner, Carlisle.
Ohio	Henry Leach, Hartford.
Oldham	J. L. Reeves, LaGrange.
Owen	W. A. Barnes, Owenton.
Owsley	P. M. Frye, Booneville.
Pendleton	R. F. Ballinger, Falmouth.
Perry	John McIntosh, Hazard.
Pike	M. F. Campbell, Pikeville.
Powell	Mrs. K. S. Bohannan, Xena.
Pulaski	W. J. Barnes, Somerset.
Robertson	J. W. Mullikin, Mount Olivet.
Rockcastle	J. W. Kincer, Mount Vernon.
Rowan	Mrs. C. W. Stewart, Morehead.
Russell	Robert Antle, Jamestown.
Scott	J. W. True, Georgetown.
Shelby	G. M. Money, Shelbyville.
Simpson	Chas. Turner, Franklin.
Spencer	Miss Katie Beauchamp, Taylorsville.
KENTUCKY—contd.	
Taylor	E. P. Peterson, Campbellsville.
Todd	A. S. Johnson, Elkton.
Trigg	Levi Cunningham, Cadiz.
Trimble	I. D. Mitchell, Bedford.
Union	N. C. Hammack, Morganfield.
Warren	Emery H. White, Bowling Green.
Washington	J. W. Bush, Springfield.
Wayne	A. N. Shearer, Monticello.
Webster	A. L. Lloyd, Dixon.
Whitley	E. F. Davis, Williamsburg.
Wolfe	J. W. Taulbee, Daysboro.
Woodford	M. B. Hifner, Versailles.
LOUISIANA.[1]	
Acadia	J. H. Lewis, Crowley.
Ascension	J. L. Rusca, Donaldsonville.
Assumption	S. A. Alleman, Napoleonville.
Avoyelles	G. L. Porterie, Marksville.
Baton Rouge, East	H. K. Strickland, Baton Rouge.
Baton Rouge, West	J. H. Bres, Port Allen.
Bienville	E. H. Fisher, Arcadia.
Bossier	W. A. Fortson, Benton.
Caddo	C. E. Byrd, Shreveport.
Calcasieu	Jno. McNeese, Lake Charles.
Caldwell	E. H. Turner, Columbia.
Cameron	A. G. Murray, Lowry.
Carroll East	C. C. Lewis, Lake Providence.
Carroll, West	W. M. Dollerhide, Pioneer.
Catahoula	J. C. Hardin, Harrisonburg.
Claiborne	J. H. Davidson, Homer.
Concordia	D. C. Strickler, Vidalia.
De Soto	S. R. Cummins, Grand Cane.
Evangeline	E. E. Ortego, Ville Platte.
Franklin	H. F. Smullin, Winnsboro.
Feliciana, East	J. W. Mobley, Clinton.
Feliciana, West	A. M. Hendon, St. Francisville.
Grant	J. N. Warner, Pollock.
Iberia	R. W. Frame, New Iberia.
Iberville	L. E. Messick, Plaquemine.
Jackson	C. L. Shell, Chatham.
Jefferson	J. C. Ellis, Gretna.
Lafayette	E. L. Wright, Lafayette.
Lafourche	W. S. Lafargue, Thibodaux.
La Salle	J. W. Carter, Jena.
Lincoln	T. A. Green, Ruston.
Livingston	W. H. Underwood, Denham Springs.
Madison	C. M. Hughes, Tallulah.
Morehouse	J. O. Taylor, Bastrop.
Natchitoches	A. E. Bath, Natchitoches.
Orleans	J. M. Gwinn, New Orleans.
Ouachita	T. O. Brown, Monroe.
Plaquemines	Edw. C. Kohn, Pointe a la Hache.
Pointe Coupee	C. F. Trudeau, New Roads.
Rapides	D. B. Showalter, Alexandria.
Red River	Jno. I. Teer, Coushatta.
Richland	T. H. McGregor, Rayville.
Sabine	W. S. Mitchell, Many.
St. Bernard	Clement Story, Poydras.
St. Charles	T. B. Sellers, Ama.
St. Helena	W. H. Humble, Greensburg.
St. James	J. N. Gourdain, Convent.
St. John	J. H. Dupuy, Edgard.
St. Landry	C. J. Thompson, Opelousas.
St. Martin	A. C. Bernard, St. Martinville.
St. Mary	Dr. D. N. Foster, Franklin.
St. Tammany	E. E. Lyon, Covington.
Tangipahoa	A. C. Lewis, Amite.

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[1] Parish superintendents.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
LOUISIANA—contd.	
Tensas	T. M. Wade, Newellton.
Terrebonne	Jno. M. Foote, Houma.
Union	J. O. Hodnett, Farmerville.
Vermilion	A. M. Smith, Abbeville.
Vernon	W. L. Ford, Leesville.
Washington	D. H. Stringfield, Franklinton.
Webster	T. W. Fuller, Minden.
Winn	J. J. Mixon, Winnfield.
MARYLAND.	
Allegany	J. E. Edwards, Cumberland. G. M. Perdew, assistant, Cumberland.
Anne Arundel	Samuel Garner, Annapolis.
Baltimore	A. S. Cook, Towson. J. T. Hershner, assistant.
Calvert	Jas. B. Lattimer, Prince Frederick.
Caroline	E. M. Noble, Denton.
Carroll	G. T. Morelock, Westminster.
Cecil	J. M. McVey, Elkton.
Charles	T. M. Carpenter, La Plata.
Dorchester	A. S. Marine, Cambridge. Jos. B. Meridith, assistant.
Frederick	J. T. White, Frederick. S. N. Young, assistant.
Garrett	F. E. Rathbun, Oakland.
Harford	C. T. Wright, Bel Air.
Howard	W. C. Phillips, Ellicott City.
Kent	J. L. Smyth, Chestertown.
Montgomery	Earle B. Wood, Rockville.
Prince Georges	F. Sasscer, Upper Marlboro.
Queen Annes	B. J. Grimes, Centerville.
St. Marys	G. W. Joy, Leonardtown.
Somerset	Wm. H. Dashiell, Princess Anne.
Talbot	Nicholas Orem, Easton.
Washington	W. M. Huyett, Hagerstown.
Wicomico	Wm. J. Holloway, Salisbury.
Worcester	E. W. McMaster, Pocomoke City.
MICHIGAN.	
Alcona	T. B. Cook, Harrisville.
Alger	John W. Taylor, Munising.
Allegan	C. L. Goodrich, Allegan.
Alpena	E. L. Little, Alpena.
Antrim	C. L. Taisey, Bellaire.
Arenac	Geo. H. Glasure, Standish.
Baraga	S. O. Clinton, Baraga.
Barry	E. J. Edger, Hastings.
Bay	John B. Laing, Bay City.
Benzie	T. H. Fewlass, Honor.
Berrien	G. N. Otwell, St. Joseph.
Branch	F. E. Robinson, Coldwater.
Calhoun	Frank D. Miller, Marshall.
Cass	Ruth H. Mosier, Dowagiac.
Charlevoix	J. H. Milford, East Jordan.
Cheboygan	W. L. Coffey, Cheboygan.
Chippewa	T. R. Easterday, Sault Ste. Marie.
Clare	A. H. Aldrich, Harrison.
Clinton	T. H. Townsend, St. Johns.
Crawford	Alveretta Irving, Grayling.
Delta	Peter R. Legg, Gladstone.
Dickinson	Donald O'Hara, Iron Mountain.
Eaton	Cynthia A. Green, Charlotte.
Emmet	H. S. Babcock, Harbor Springs.
Genesee	H. E. Potter, Flint.
Gladwin	F. E. Armstrong, Gladwin.
MICHIGAN—contd.	
Gogebic	Laura Bowden, Ironwood.
Grand Traverse	Lee Hornsby, Traverse City.
Gratiot	H. A. Potter, Ithaca.
Hillsdale	Harry McClave, Hillsdale.
Houghton	William Bath, Houghton.
Huron	W. H. Sparling, Bad Axe.
Ingham	F. E. Searl, Mason.
Ionia	H. H. Lowrey, Ionia.
Iosco	J. A. Campbell, Whittemore.
Iron	J. F. Mason, Mansfield.
Isabella	E. T. Cameron, Mt. Pleasant.
Jackson	T. M. Sattler, Jackson.
Kalamazoo	Sheridan Mapes, Kalamazoo.
Kalkaska	Irene L. Getty, Kalkaska.
Kent	A. M. Freeland, Grand Rapids.
Keweenaw	H. S. Winter, Mohawk.
Lake	E. G. Johnson, Luther.
Lapeer	Chas. H. Naylor, Lapeer.
Leelanau	Bertha B. Campbell, Traverse City, R. F. D. 5.
Lenawee	John W. Gray, Adrian.
Livingston	Maud Benjamin, Fowlerville.
Luce	Eva E. Buermann, Newberry.
Mackinac	E. J. Lachance, St. Ignace.
Macomb	O. D. Thompson, Romeo.
Manistee	Josephine A. Reynolds, Manistee.
Marquette	A. E. Sterne, Ishpeming.
Mason	C. A. Rinehart, Scottville.
Mecosta	Bert J. Ford, Big Rapids.
Menominee	Jesse Hubbard, Menominee.
Midland	J. A. Mustard, Midland.
Missaukee	John Q. Zuck, Lake City.
Monroe	J. J. Kelley, Monroe.
Montcalm	E. D. Straight, Stanton.
Montmorency	B. J. Watters, Lewiston.
Muskegon	Nellie B. Chisholm, Montague.
Newaygo	Isabelle M. Becker, Fremont.
Oakland	A. L. Craft, Pontiac.
Oceana	Emma Hutchins, Hart.
Ogemaw	Josephine Woods, West Branch.
Ontonagon	A. C. Adair, Rockland.
Osceola	Geo. F. Roxburgh, Reed City.
Oscoda	Marguerite L. Perry, Mio.
Otsego	Ray F. Jennings, Gaylord.
Ottawa	N. R. Stanton, Holland.
Presque Isle	M. H. Nester, Rogers.
Roscommon	Ellen McCrea, Roscommon.
Saginaw	B. S. Tefft, Saginaw, W. S.
St. Clair	L. T. Blackney, Port Huron.
St. Joseph	F. J. Wheeler, Centerville.
Sanilac	W. J. Musselman, Sandusky.
Schoolcraft	W. T. S. Cornell, Manistique.
Shiawassee	H. E. Slocum, Corunna.
Tuscola	Henry P. Bush, Caro.
Van Buren	V. R. Hungerford, Paw Paw.
Washtenaw	Evan Essery, Ann Arbor.
Wayne	E. W. Yost, Detroit.
Wexford	W. H. Faunce, Cadillac.
MINNESOTA.	
Aitkin	E. H. Hall, Aitkin.
Anoka	Geo. D. Goodrich, Anoka.
Becker	Lulu H. Kohler, Detroit.
Beltrami	W. B. Stewart, Bemidji.
Benton	Geo. A. Selke, Sauk Rapids.
Big Stone	Anna Swenson, Ortonville.
Blue Earth	O. O. Ulvin, Mankato.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
MINNESOTA—con.	
Brown	R. B. Kennedy, New Ulm.
Carlton	E. J. Colovin, Cloquet.
Carver	F. L. Williams, Watertown.
Cass	R. F. Ross, Walker.
Chippewa	Hilda M. Gippe, Montevideo.
Chisago	E. A. Cedergren, Lindstrom.
Clay	Eleanor Rushfeldt, Moorhead.
Clearwater	J. H. Sommervold, Bagley.
Cook	Wm. Clinch, Grand Marais.
Cottonwood	J. J. Koehn, Windom.
Crow Wing	Irma C. Hartley, Brainerd.
Dakota	C. W. Meyer, Hastings.
Dodge	Alma B. Campbell, Mantorville.
Douglas	T. A. Erickson, Alexandria.
Faribault	Margaret E. Bieri, Blue Earth.
Fillmore	Oscar Carlson, Preston.
Freeborn	Harold Dahlen, Albert Lea.
Goodhue	Carl C. Swain, Red Wing.
Grant	R. J. Stromme, Elbow Lake.
Hennepin	H. I. Harter, Minneapolis C. H.
Houston	Georgina Lommen, Caledonia.
Hubbard	D. R. Bradford, Park Rapids.
Isanti	Mrs. M. B. Hixson, Cambridge.
Itasca	Mrs. E. Whipple, Grand Rapids.
Jackson	J. B. Arp, Jackson.
Kanabec	Willis Fairbanks, Mora.
Kandiyohi	W. D. Frederickson, Willmar.
Kittson	Blanda E. Sundberg, Hallock.
Koochiching	Annie E. Shelland, International Falls.
Lac qui Parle	A. J. Kittleson, Madison.
Lake	Helen C. Barton, Two Harbors.
Le Sueur	J. A. Meagher, Le Sueur Centre.
Lincoln	J. T. Clawson, Ivanhoe.
Lyon	H. R. Painter, Marshall.
McLeod	Carl Anderson, Hutchinson.
Mahnomen	Henry Harty, Bejou.
Marshall	David Johnson, Warren.
Martin	C. J. Timms, Fairmont.
Meeker	Kate M. Jones, Litchfield.
Mille Lacs	Guy Ewing, Princeton.
Morrison	M. E. Barnes, Little Falls.
Mower	Grace B. Sherwood, Austin.
Murray	Florence Turner, Slayton.
Nicollet	M. R. Davis, St. Peter.
Nobles	L. W. Abbott, Worthington.
Norman	Marie Lovsnes, Ada.
Olmsted	Wm. L. Mercer, Rochester.
Otter Tail	Signe Svendsgaard, Fergus Falls.
Pennington	E. A. Mostue, Thief River Falls.
Pine	Herman C. Otis, Pine City.
Pipestone	Jessie E. Walkup, Pipestone.
Polk	N. A. Thorson, Crookston.
Pope	G. C. Torguson, Glenwood.
Ramsey	Geo. H. Reif, St. Paul C. H.
Red Lake	H. F. Anderson, Red Lake Falls.
Redwood	H. J. Bebermeyer, Redwood Falls.
Renville	F. A. Schafer, Renville.
Rice	J. H. Lewis, Faribault.
Rock	Edia A. Headley, Luverne.
Roseau	Anna C. Olsen, Roseau.
St. Louis	Noah Young, Duluth.
Scott	T. J. Nicolay, Shakopee.
Sherburne	C. A. Bailey, Elk River.
Sibley	W. M. Carver, Gaylord.
Stearns	W. A. Boerger, St. Cloud.
MINNESOTA—con.	
Steele	C. L. Davis, Owatonna.
Stevens	Kay S. Roberts, Morris.
Swift	Lillie E. Thorson, Benson.
Todd	Victor S. Knutson, Long Prairie.
Traverse	W. T. Williams, Wheaton.
Wabasha	Harry V. Fick, Lake City.
Wadena	Minnie L. McCaffrey, Wadena.
Waseca	H. C. Van Loh, Waseca.
Washington	J. F. Larson, Stillwater.
Watonwan	W. W. Brown, St. James.
Wilkin	E. M. Granger, Breckenridge.
Winona	Wm. A. Buggs, Winona.
Wright	A. A. Zech, Annandale.
Yellow Medicine	Lue A. Olds, Granite Falls.
MISSISSIPPI.	
Adams	J. W. Henderson, Natches.
Alcorn	W. A. McCord, Corinth.
Amite	F. H. Butler, Liberty.
Attala	W. A. Hull, Kosciusko.
Benton	W. T. Renick, Ashland.
Bolivar	A. C. Pearman, Rosedale.
Calhoun	J. O. Rich, Pittsboro.
Carroll	C. A. Neal, Carrollton.
Chickasaw	Geo. D. Riley, Okolona.
Choctaw	Sam C. Ray, Ackerman.
Claiborne	T. V. Rush, Port Gibson.
Clarke	J. R. Brock, Quitman.
Clay	Paul Townsend, West Point.
Coahoma	J. M. Brooks, Clarksdale.
Copiah	A. A. McAlpin, Hazlehurst.
Covington	J. T. Calhoun, Collins.
DeSoto	R. E. L. Morgan, Hernando.
Forrest	E. J. Currie, Hattiesburg.
Franklin	W. L. Foreman, Meadville.
George	W. A. Avera, Lucedale.
Greene	Joe Walley, Leakesville.
Grenada	V. R. James, Grenada.
Hancock	John Craft, Bay St. Louis.
Harrison	J. J. Dawsey, Gulfport.
Hinds	C. S. North, Raymond.
Holmes	J. M. Kimbrough, Lexington.
Issaquena	George Robinson, Mayersville.
Itawamba	W. G. Crouch, Fulton.
Jackson	Guy D. Dean, Scranton.
Jasper	L. R. Massey, Bay Springs.
Jefferson	L. L. Posey, Fayette.
Jefferson Davis	W. W. Lee, Prentiss.
Jones	L. J. Stringer, Laurel.
Kemper	W. F. Brown, De Kalb.
Lafayette	H. T. Smith, Oxford.
Lamar	A. Q. Broadus, Purvis.
Lauderdale	John R. Ellis, Meridian.
Lawrence	Tom J. White, Monticello.
Leake	W. E. Martin, Carthage.
Lee	E. P. Clayton, Tupelo.
Leflore	J. R. Hughes, Greenwood.
Lincoln	Z. C. Hodges, Brookhaven.
Lowndes	S. M. Nash, Columbus.
Madison	G. R. Bennett, Canton.
Marion	Fred Barnes, Columbia.
Marshall	John P. Horton, Holly Springs.
Monroe	E. E. Cowley, Aberdeen.
Montgomery	Guy C. Burton, Winona.
Neshoba	H. Y. Graham, Philadelphia.
Newton	W. W. Coursey, Decatur.
Noxubee	Jas. R. Jackson, Macon.
Oktibbeha	A. E. Green, Starkville.
Panola	C. B. Young, Sardis.
Pearl River	C. E. Bass, Poplarville.
Perry	W. F. Backstrom, New Augusta.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
MISSISSIPPI—CON.	
Pike	S. W. Simmons, Magnolia.
Pontotoc	J. M. Spain, Pontotoc.
Prentiss	R. E. L. Sutherland, Booneville.
Quitman	F. M. Bizzell, Marks.
Rankin	H. H. Bullock, Brandon.
Scott	A. C. Walters, Forest.
Sharkey	Jno. S. Joor, sr., Rolling Fork.
Simpson	J. R. Williamson, Mendenhall.
Smith	W. P. Searcy, Raleigh.
Sunflower	C. T. Bookout, Indianola.
Tallahatchie	R. H. Harrison, Charleston.
Tate	Ira G. Allen, Senatobia.
Tippah	L. H. Jobe, Ripley.
Tishomingo	N. L. Phillips, Iuka.
Tunica	J. W. Henderson, Tunica.
Union	W. T. Smith, New Albany.
Warren	J. H. Culkin, Vicksburg.
Washington	S. Archer, sr., Greenville.
Wayne	John A. Ramsey, Waynesboro.
Webster	J. B. Scott, Walthall.
Wilkinson	John C. Day, Woodville.
Winston	E. C. Lovorn, Louisville.
Yalobusha	R. P. Hentz, Water Valley.
Yazoo	W. W. Lockard, Yazoo City.
MISSOURI.	
Adair	L. B. Sipple, Kirksville.
Andrew	Leslie M. Dobbs, Savannah.
Atchison	Sallie V. Grebe, Rock Port.
Audrain	J. L. Shobe, Mexico.
Barry	W. E. Hankins, Cassville.
Barton	L. E. Brous, Lamar.
Bates	P. M. Allison, Butler.
Benton	Chas. G. Harvey, Warsaw.
Bollinger	Wilbur M. Welker, Marble Hill.
Boone	Geo. T. Porter, Columbia.
Buchanan	Geo. K. Gilpin, St. Joseph.
Butler	C. A. Roberson, Poplar Bluff.
Caldwell	D. N. McClintock, Kingston.
Calloway	R. G. Hale, Fulton.
Camden	M. E. Johnson, Linn Creek.
Cape Girardeau	J. T. McDonald, Jackson.
Carroll	C. N. Cannady, Carrollton.
Carter	W. S. Perrin, Elsinore.
Cass	T. J. Walker, Harrisonville.
Cedar	W. H. Riley, Stockton.
Chariton	C. C. Carlstead, Keytesville.
Christian	Tom Mapes, Ozark.
Clark	Helen McKee, Kahoka.
Clay	J. A. Robeson, Liberty.
Clinton	Anna B. Hord, Plattsburg.
Cole	J. S. Lumpkin, Jefferson City.
Cooper	D. L. Rothgeb, Bunceton.
Crawford	Wm. P. Summers, Steelville.
Dade	Ed. H. Carender, Greenfield.
Dallas	W. A. Williams, Buffalo.
Daviess	I. J. Voglegesang, Gallatin.
Dekalb	W. O. Swails, Clarksdale.
Dent	Jas. W. Millsap, Salem.
Douglas	John Levan, Ava.
Dunklin	E. D. McAnally, Kennett.
Franklin	A. F. Borberg, Union.
Gasconade	C. M. Danuser, Hermann.
Gentry	C. H. Allen, Albany.
Greene	J. R. Roberts, Springfield.
Grundy	Elizabeth Brainerd, Trenton.
Harrison	Nellie K. Sutton, Bethany.
Henry	Uel W. Lamkin, Clinton.
Hickory	S. Z. Odenbaugh, Hermitage.
Holt	Earl A. Rock, Oregon.
MISSOURI—CON.	
Howard	Levi Markland, Armstrong.
Howell	W. C. McMillin, West Plains.
Iron	B. P. Burnham, Ironton.
Jackson	L. F. Blackburn, Independence.
Jasper	L. W. Kost, Carthage.
Jefferson	R. B. Wilson, Hillsboro.
Johnson	R. H. Boston, Warrensburg.
Knox	W. E. Cottey, Edina.
Laclede	F. W. Ploger, Lebanon.
Lafayette	H. T. Phillips, Lexington.
Lawrence	D. W. Clayton, Mount Vernon.
Lewis	Lloyd H. Hicks, Monticello.
Lincoln	Zula Thurman, Troy.
Linn	E. L. Joyce, Brookfield.
Livingston	J. W. McCormick, Chillicothe.
McDonald	W. H. Baker, Pineville.
Macon	O. L. Cross, Macon.
Madison	F. C. Baker, Fredericktown.
Maries	C. N. Cooper, Weldon.
Marion	Frankie Connell, Hannibal.
Mercer	D. W. Branam, Princeton.
Miller	Jas. Messersmith, Tuscumbia.
Mississippi	(Mrs.) C. E. Graham, Charleston.
Moniteau	C. J. Ladman, California.
Monroe	John L. Carter, Paris.
Montgomery	W. F. Hupe, Montgomery City.
Morgan	Wray Witten, Versailles.
New Madrid	L. O. Swan, New Madrid.
Newton	E. H. Newcomb, Neosho.
Nodaway	W. M. Oakerson, Maryville.
Oregon	H. M. Williams, Alton.
Osage	R. H. Bryan, Linn.
Ozark	A. J. Kimball, Gainesville.
Pemiscot	Chas. G. Ross, Caruthersville.
Perry	J. G. Reddick, Perryville.
Pettis	T. R. Luckett, Sedalia.
Phelps	John A. Mooney, Rolla.
Pike	W. Nora Mitchell, Bowling Green.
Platte	J. F. Sexton, Platte City.
Polk	Daisy Johnson, Bolivar.
Pulaski	L. J. Gladden, Laquey.
Putnam	W. K. Armstrong, Unionville.
Ralls	O. E. Hulse, New London.
Randolph	S. B. McCully, Moberly.
Ray	O. L. Kincaid, Richmond.
Reynolds	Lula Barton, Centerville.
Ripley	H. E. Braschler, Doniphan.
St. Charles	P. J. McKinley, St. Charles.
St. Clair	C. E. Higgins, Osceola.
St. Francois	A. H. Akers, Farmington.
Ste. Genevieve	Jos. King, Ste. Genevieve.
St. Louis	W. T. Bender, Clayton.
Saline	J. L. Lynch, Marshall.
Schuyler	(Mrs.) Bello Bunch, Lancaster.
Scotland	I. M. Horn, Memphis.
Scott	Chas. D. Harris, Benton.
Shannon	Walter Webb, Eminence.
Shelby	Myrtle Threlkeld, Shelbyville.
Stoddard	A. F. Asa, Bloomfield.
Stone	L. V. Threlfall, Galena.
Sullivan	Roxana Jones, Milan.
Taney	John W. Bennett, Forsyth.
Texas	J. O. Payne, Houston.
Vernon	W. Y. Foster, Nevada.
Warren	F. W. Kehr, Marthasville.
Washington	Burwell Fox, Potosi.
Wayne	C. E. Burton, Piedmont.
Webster	Lon Yates, Marshfield.
Worth	(Mrs.) Cora Early, Grant City.
Wright	John M. Carter, Hartville.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
MONTANA.	
Beaverhead	Margaret Ross, Dillon.
Blaine	Avy L. Short, Chinook.
Broadwater	Lizzie Barker, Townsend.
Carbon	Fannie Torreyson, Red Lodge.
Cascade	Annie McAnelly, Great Falls.
Chouteau	Daisy Blackstone, Fort Benton.
Custer	Mary L. Wilson, Miles City.
Dawson	Harriet Kelly, Glendive.
Deer Lodge	Echo Templeton, Anaconda.
Fergus	Alice O'Hara, Lewistown.
Flathead	May Trumper, Kalispell.
Gallatin	Ida W. Davis, Bozeman.
Granite	Lottie T. Irvine, Philipsburg.
Hill	Sarah F. McHale, Havre.
Jefferson	Elsie E. Halford, Boulder.
Lewis and Clark	Lucile Dyas, Helena.
Lincoln	F. D. Head, Libby.
Madison	Phebe Williams, Virginia City.
Meagher	Belle Francisco, White sulphur Springs.
Missoula	Pearl T. Marshall, Missoula.
Musselshell	Maude Griffin, Roundup.
Park	Maud Brown, Livingston.
Powell	Olga Johnson, Deer Lodge.
Ravalli	Minnie Bailey-Law, Hamilton.
Rosebud	Fay Alderson, Forsyth.
Sanders	Helena Feeny, Thompson.
Silver Bow	Mamie Burt, Butte.
Sweet Grass	Jessie F. Evans, Big Timber.
Teton	Nellie R. Brown, Chouteau.
Valley	Flora Sims, Glasgow.
NEBRASKA.	
Adams	L. R. Willis, Hastings.
Antelope	D. M. Murphy, Neligh.
Banner	Mrs. M. M. Belian, Harrisburg.
Blaine	A. L. Shamblin, Brewster.
Boone	Hannah C. Johnson, Albion.
Box Butte	Della M. Reed, Alliance.
Boyd	Mabel K. Hadsell, Butte.
Brown	Emma Burritt, Ainsworth.
Buffalo	J. S. Elliott, Kearney.
Burt	W. T. Poucher, Tekamah.
Butler	F. A. Stech, David City.
Cass	Mary E. Foster, Plattsmouth.
Cedar	W. E. Miller, Hartington.
Chase	Leocia Fletcher, Imperial.
Cherry	Cora Thackrey, Valentine.
Cheyenne	Edith H. Morrison, Sidney.
Clay	Edith A. Lathrop, Clay Center.
Colfax	F. J. Vogltance, Schuyler.
Cuming	Emma R. Miller, West Point.
Custer	T. C. Grimes, Broken Bow.
Dakota	Margaret A. Murphy, Dakota.
Dawes	Carrie L. Munkres, Chadron.
Dawson	L. A. Olinger, Lexington.
Deuel	Vera L. Yockey, Chappell.
Dixon	A. V. Teed, Ponca.
Dodge	J. M. Matzen, Fremont.
Douglas	W. A. Yoder, Omaha.
Dundy	Lorna L. White, Benkelman.
Fillmore	Alice Jennett, Geneva.
Franklin	Mrs. Ruth Erfman, Bloomington.
Frontier	Ruby P. M. Larson, Stockville.
Furnas	C. F. Stilwell, Beaver City.
Gage	Jessie B. Prytle, Beatrice.
Garden	T. C. McKee, Oshkosh.
Garfield	J. L. Jenkins, Burwell.
Gosper	F. W. Montgomery, Elwood.
Grant	M. L. Wheeler, Hyannis.
NEBRASKA—contd.	
Greeley	James Pelley, Greeley.
Hall	Dorothea Kolls, Grand Island.
Hamilton	E. W. Jackson, Aurora.
Harlan	Mrs. M. Bragg, Alma.
Hayes	J. W. Furrow, Hayes Center.
Hitchcock	Carl L. Anderson, Trenton.
Holt	Minnie B. Miller, O'Neill.
Hooker	J. H. Garrett, Mullen.
Howard	E. L. Vogt, St. Paul.
Jefferson	R. Clement Harriss, Fairbury.
Johnson	L. C. Kuster, Tecumseh.
Kearney	Edwin Curtis, Minden.
Keith	Mrs. G. Richmond, Ogalalla.
Keya Paha	A. Boshart, Springview.
Kimball	Claude L. Alden, Kimball.
Knox	Abbia M. Newberry, Center.
Lancaster	W. H. Gardner, Lincoln.
Lincoln	Cleo Chappell, North Platte.
Logan	W. D. Paul, Gandy.
Loup	Mabel McKimmey, Taylor.
McPherson	Clara Nichols, Tryon.
Madison	N. A. Housel, Madison.
Merrick	Margaret McCutcheon, Central City.
Morrill	Cora A. Thompson, Bridgeport.
Nance	Lucretia Conard, Fullerton.
Nemaha	L. Nemaha Clarke, Auburn.
Nuckolls	Elmer L. Seely, Nelson.
Otoe	Chas. Speedie, Nebraska City.
Pawnee	Lulu S. Wolford, Pawnee City.
Perkins	R. H. Vance, Grant.
Phelps	Huldah Peterson, Holdrege.
Pierce	Lettie Scott, Pierce.
Platte	Fred S. Lecron, Columbus.
Polk	Amelia Rasmussen, Osceola.
Red Willow	Anna McDonnell, McCook.
Richardson	T. J. Oliver, Falls City.
Rock	A. F. Dugger, Bassett.
Saline	L. J. Bouchal, Wilber.
Sarpy	H. A. Collins, Papillion.
Saunders	Mrs. E. O. Williams, Wahoo.
Scotts Bluff	H. J. Mummau, Gering.
Seward	W. H. Brokaw, Seward.
Sheridan	C. P. Kelley, Rushville.
Sherman	L. H. Currier, Loup City.
Sioux	Mary J. Fenske, Harrison.
Stanton	A. L. Burnham, Stanton.
Thayer	A. T. Holtzen, Hebron.
Thomas	Inez Oakes, Thedford.
Thurston	John W. Lang, Pender.
Valley	Eva B. Shuman, Ord.
Washington	John A. Rhoades, Blair.
Wayne	Mrs. Elsie Littell, Wayne.
Webster	Gertrude L. Coon, Red Cloud.
Wheeler	Edith Bowler, Bartlett.
York	Alice Florer, York.
NEVADA.[1]	
Elko (1st dist.)	G. E. Anderson, Elko.
Eureka	A. B. Lightfoot, Ely.
Lander	
White Pine (2d dist.)	
Churchill	James F. Abel, Winnemucca.
Humboldt (3d dist.)	
Douglas	R. H. Mitchell, Sparks.
Lyon	
Esmeralda	
Ormsby	
Storey	
Washoe (4th dist.)	

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[1] Deputy State superintendents.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
NEVADA—contd.	
Clark	J. G. McKay, Las Vegas.
Lincoln	
Nye (5th dist.)	
NEW JERSEY.	
Atlantic	H. M. Cressman, Egg Harbor City.
Bergen	B. C. Wooster, Hackensack.
Burlington	H. A. Stees, Beverly.
Camden	C. S. Albertson, Magnolia.
Cape May	Aaron W. Hand, Cape May.
Cumberland	J. N. Glaspell, Bridgeton.
Essex	L. H. Carris, Newark.
Gloucester	D. T. Steelman, Glassboro.
Hudson	M. H. Kinsley, Jersey City.
Hunterdon	J. S. Hoffman, Flemington.
Mercer	J. M. Arnold, Princeton.
Middlesex	H. B. Willis, New Brunswick.
Monmouth	John Enright, Freehold.
Morris	J. H. Hulsart, Morristown.
Ocean	C. A. Morris, Toms River.
Passaic	E. W. Garrison, Paterson.
Salem	Oscar O. Barr, Salem.
Somerset	Henry C. Krebs, Plainfield.
Sussex	Ralph Decker, Sussex.
Union	J. J. Savitz, Elizabeth.
Warren	F. T. Atwood, Belvidere.
NEW MEXICO.	
Bernalillo	Atanasio Montoya, Albuquerque.
Chaves	C. C. Hill, Roswell.
Colfax	Mrs. Josie Lockard, Raton.
Curry	L. C. Mersfelder, Clovis.
Dona Ana	Frank M. Hayner, Las Cruces.
Eddy	A. E. Bailey, Carlsbad.
Grant	Miss I. L. Eckles, Silver City.
Guadalupe	J. V. Gallegos, Santa Rosa.
Lincoln	Mrs. Wallace L. Gumm, Carrizozo.
Luna	Miss G. G. Goebel, Deming.
Mora	Manuel Madrid, Mora.
McKinley	E. M. Sanjule, Gallup.
Otero	R. S. Tipton, Alamogordo.
Quay	E. Pack, Tucumcari.
Rio Arriba	David Martinez, Velarde.
Roosevelt	Mrs. S. F. Culberson, Portales.
Sandoval	Bonifacio Montoya, Bernalillo.
San Juan	J. L. G. Swinney, Aztec.
San Miguel	M. F. Desmarais, Las Vegas.
Santa Fe	J. V. Conway, Santa Fe.
Sierra	F. I. Given, Hillsboro.
Socorro	Benjamin Sanchez, Socorro.
Taos	Jose Montaner, Taos.
Torrance	Charles L. Burt, Mountainair.
Union	H. H. Errett, Clayton.
Valencia	Saturnino Baca, Belen.
NEW YORK.[1]	
Albany	Newton Sweet, Ravena. W. J. Haverly, West Berne. Walter S. Clark, West Albany, R. F. D.
Allegany	G. W. D'Autremont, Hume. John D. Jones, Cuba. E. D. Walters, Bolivar. Charles D. Hill, Angelica. Willet L. Ward, Wellsville.
Broome	Kasson E. Beilby, Deposit. J. E. Hurlburt, Windsor.
NEW YORK—contd.	
Broome	Mabel L. Watrous, Endicott. Erwin B. Whitney, Whitney Point.
Cattaraugus	Sq. C. Hayden, Franklinville. Gilbert A. Farwell, Hinsdale. A. H. Mathewson, W. Valley. G. E. Waller, Little Valley. E. A. Stratton, Randolph.
Cayuga	H. S. R. Murphy, Cato. Olin W. Wood, Auburn. Anna M. Kent (Mrs.), Union Springs. G. B. Springer, Genoa. Henry Greenfield, Moravia, R. F. D. 13.
Chautauqua	J. N. Palmer, Fredonia. James R. Flagg, Frewsburg. J. M. Barker, Niobe. Pratt E. Marshall, Sherman. L. Waldo Swain, Westfield. J. S. Wright, Falconer.
Chemung	Walter C. King, Horseheads. Martha M. Cox, Elmira.
Chenango	Ellen E. Baldwin, Lincklaen. Albert C. Bowers, Sherburne. J. S. Childs, Oxford. Jane I. Schenck, Greene. Mary L. Isbell, Norwich.
Clinton	Oliver A. Wolcott, Keeseville. Ernest B. Sargent, Ellenburg. Grace M. Decker, Rouses Point.
Columbia	S. B. Smith, East Chatham. W. L. Millias, Valatie. E. A. Smith, Blue Stores.
Cortland	C. W. Ellis, jr., McGraw. Ada M. Shuler (Mrs.), McGraw. Alice B. Greene, Willet.
Delaware	Lilian M. Reichard, Masonville. Z. Le R. Myers, Downsville. E. O. Harkness, Delhi. L. R. Long, Margaretville. M. G. Nelson, Franklin. A. T. Hamilton, North Harpersfield.
Dutchess	Frank L. Haight, Fishkill. F. E. Benedict, La Grangeville. Clara E. Drum, Clinton Corners. W. R. Tremper, Rhinebeck.
Erie	C. A. Heist, Clarence. H. A. Dann, Lancaster. W. E. Pierce, East Aurora. E. D. Ormsby, North Collins. W. E. Bensley, Springville.
Essex	C. J. Mousaw, Schroon Lake. Gertrude M. Spear, Westport. Mattie J. Prime, Upper Jay.
Franklin	Eugene L. Moe, Burke. G. La Graff, Tupper Lake. F. H. Wilcox, North Bangor. Gertrude E. Hyde, Moira.
Fulton	Fred A. Stryker, Stratford. C. E. Van Buren, Broadalbin.
Genessee	E. M. McCullough, Batavia. T. A. Clement, South Byron.
Greene	R. N. Saunders, Athens. R. M. MacNaught, Windham. Walter J. Decker, Hunter.
Hamilton	C. B. Hanley, Wells.
Herkimer	A. J. Rose, West Winfield. Silas C. Kimm, Dolgeville. C. B. Keller, Little Falls. J. C. Spall, Cold Brook.
Jefferson	C. M. Pierce, Adams. W. J. Linnell, Brownville. T. B. Stoel, Cape Vincent.

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[1] District superintendents.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
NEW YORK—con.	
Jefferson	R.W. Bowman, Sacketts Harbor.
	D. D. T. Marshall, Redwood.
	Clair B. Burns, Evans Mills.
Lewis	Ursula T. Marilley, Croghan.
	F. Reid Spaulding, Copenhagen.
	Ruth M. Johnston, Port Leyden.
	A. W. Trainor, West Leyden.
Livingston	John P. Magee, Groveland.
	Jay F. Smith, Dansville, R. F. D. 1.
	H. F. Collister, Dalton.
Madison	Irving S. Sears, Hamilton.
	E. A. Fuller, DeRuyter.
	H. C. W. Kingsbury, Morrisville.
	Daniel Keating, Oneida.
Monroe	W. W. Rayfield, Webster.
	M.B.Furman, East Rochester.
	Fred W. Hill, Spencerport.
	John C. Malloch, Churchville.
Montgomery	N. Berton Alter, Randall.
	Lela G. Dodge (Mrs.), Fonda.
Nassau	James S. Cooley, Mineola.
	W. C. Mepham, Merrick.
Niagara	T. G. Cramer, Gasport.
	Orrin A. Kolb, Lockport, R. F. D. 5.
	W. D. Wisner, Ransomville.
Oneida	Ray P. Snyder, New York Mills.
	Harry C. Buck, Clayville.
	W. J. Lewis, Westmoreland.
	F. E. Mathewson, Verona.
	——— ———, Westernville.
	Pauline L. Scott, Blossvale.
	Daniel M. Blue, Holland Patent.
Onondaga	R. B. Searle, East Onondaga.
	G. T. Fuggle, Jamesville.
	E. E. McDowell, Memphis.
	Manford D. Green, Liverpool.
	Florence E. S. Knapp (Mrs.), Camillus.
Ontario	Leon J. Cook, E. Bloomfield.
	W. A. Ingalls, Phelps.
	E. G. Soper, Seneca Castle.
	Harrie P. Weatherlow, Naples.
Orange	Theron L. McKnight, Central Valley.
	O. Eichenberg, Monroe.
	S. A. Cortright, Middletown.
Orleans	Luella P. Hoyer, Medina, R. F. D.
	Cora V. Luttenton, Albion.
	H. F. S. Salisbury (Mrs.), Albion, R. F. D. 1.
Oswego	Mildred G. Pratt, Lacona.
	J. M. Bonner, Richland.
	Queenia R. Tooley, Fulton, R. F. D. 4.
	Charles I. Kingsbury, Mexico.
	W. S. Gardner, Fulton.
Otsego	Harrison Cossaart, Cherry Valley.
	Menzo Burlingame, Worcester.
	J. B. McManus, Cooperstown.
	May Firman, Oneonta.
	M. R. Porter, Morris.
	Floyd R. Thayer, Edmeston.
Putnam	J. H. Brooks, Garrison.
Rensselaer	C. B. Clark (Mrs.), Troy.
	C. H. Maher, Berlin.
	G.W.Patterson, jr., Rensselaer.
Rockland	Ira H. Lawton, Nyack.
St. Lawrence	W. T. Clark, Hailesboro.
	F. H. Wallace, Morristown.
	Carlos S. Blood, Heuvelton.
NEW YORK—con.	
St. Lawrence	Percy S. Ault, Waddington.
	Rose M. Libby, Colton.
	W. S. Herrick, Colton.
	M.A. Hallahan, Brasher Falls.
	A. J. Fields, Winthrop.
Saratoga	A. A. Lavery, Elnora.
	Lou Messinger, Ballston Spa.
	E. E. Hinman, Schuylerville.
	Ida M. Smith, Saratoga Spgs.
Schenectady	James Wingate, Princetown.
Schoharie	Leslie A. Tompkins, Jefferson.
	W. E. Van Wormer, Middleburg.
	R. W. Eldredge, Sharon Spgs.
Schuyler	Alberta Spaulding, Burdett.
	Jane M. Haring, Watkins.
Seneca	Alice L. Owen, Lodi.
	Charles B. Earl, Waterloo.
Steuben	Levi R. Tubbs, Corning.
	Winfred Morrow, Bath.
	G. H. Guinnip, Addison.
	F. C. Wilcox, Greenwood.
	H. M. Brush, Arkport.
	Guyon J. Carter, Avoca.
	J. G. McConnell, Prattsburg.
Suffolk	C. H. Howell, Riverhead.
	J. Henry Young, Central Islip.
	Leonard J. Smith, Smithtown Branch.
Sullivan	F. J. Lewis, Barryville.
	Charles S. Hick, Livingston Manor, R. F. D.
	Emma C. Chase (Mrs.), Livingston Manor.
Tioga	A. E. Belden, Newark Valley.
	M. D. Goodrich, Tioga Center.
	H. T. Whittemore, Nichols.
Tompkins	F. A. Beardsley, Trumansburg, R. F. D. 33.
	Hattie K. Buck, North Lansing.
	John D. Bigelow, Ithaca.
Ulster	Emily S Burnett, Kingston, Sta. R.
	J. U. Gillette, Port Ewen.
	J. M. Schoonmaker, Accord.
	W. J. Andrews, Oliverea.
Warren	F. F. Gunn, Glens Falls.
	J. R. Stickney, Bolton Landing.
	Rose Minnick (Mrs.), Glens Falls.
Washington	Amelia Blasdell, Fort Ann.
	Myra L. Ingalsbe, Hartford.
	Mary A. Potter, Greenwich, R. F. D. 4.
	F. H. Rich, Shushan, R.F.D.
Wayne	Helen C. Andrews (Mrs.), Lyons.
	Ida E. Cosad (Mrs.), Wolcott.
	A. H. McMurray, Walworth.
	R. O. Brundige, Ontario.
Westchester	S. J. Preston, Mamaroneck.
	C. H. Cheney, White Plains.
	G. H. Covey, Katonah.
	R. D. Knapp, White Plains.
Wyoming	John T. McGurren, Bliss.
	E. D. Jones, Wyoming.
	G. H. Stratton, Castile.
Yates	J. F. Bullock, Penn Yan.
	E. P. Corbit, Rushville.
NORTH CAROLINA.	
Alamance	J. B. Robertson, Graham.
Alexander	A. F. Sharpe, Stony Point.
Alleghany	Wm. F. Joines, Stratford.
Anson	J. C. Crawford, Wadesboro.
Ashe	C. M. Dickson, Grassy.
Avery	W. M. Francum, Elk Park.
Beaufort	W. L. Vaughan, Washington.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
NORTH CAROLINA—continued.	
Bertie	R. W. Askew, Windsor.
Bladen	W. I. Shaw, Ivanhoe, R. F. D. 2.
Brunswick	M. C. Guthrie, Southport.
Buncombe	A. C. Reynolds, Asheville.
Burke	T. L. Sigmon, Connelly.
Cabarrus	C. E. Borger, Concord.
Caldwell	Y. D. Moore, Lenoir.
Camden	C. H. Spencer, South Mills.
Carteret	L. B. Ennett, Cedar Point.
Caswell	G. A. Anderson, Yanceyville.
Catawba	George E. Long, Hickory.
Chatham	R. P. Johnson, Pittsboro.
Cherokee	A. L. Martin, Murphy.
Chowan	J. O. Alderman, Edenton.
Clay	T. C. Scroggs, Brasstown.
Cleveland	J. Y. Irvin, Shelby.
Columbus	F. T. Wooten, Chadbourn.
Craven	S. M. Brinson, New Bern.
Cumberland	B. T. McBryde, Fayetteville.
Currituck	J. M. Newbern, Jarvisburg.
Dare	A. W. Price, Manteo.
Davidson	P. S. Vann, Lexington.
Davie	E. P. Bradley, Mocksville.
Duplin	M. H. Wooten, Magnolia.
Durham	C. W. Massey, Durham.
Edgecombe	W. H. Pittman, Tarboro.
Forsyth	W. B. Speas, Winston-Salem.
Franklin	R. B. White, Franklinton.
Gaston	F. P. Hall, Belmont.
Gates	T. W. Costen, Gates.
Graham	T. A. Carpenter, Cheoah.
Granville	J. F. Webb, Oxford.
Greene	J. E. Debnam, Snow Hill.
Guilford	Thos. R. Foust, Greensboro.
Halifax	A. S. Harrison, Enfield.
Harnett	J. D. Ezzell, Dunn.
Haywood	R. A. Sentell, Waynesville.
Henderson	W. S. Shitle, Hendersonville.
Hertford	T. E. Browne, Ahoskie.
Hoke	J. A. McGoogan, Raeford.
Hyde	S. J. Beckwith, Lake Landing.
Iredell	L. O. White, Statesville.
Jackson	David H. Brown, Webster.
Johnston	L. T. Royall, Smithfield.
Jones	John R. Barker, Trenton.
Lee	R. W. Allen, Sanford.
Lenoir	Joseph Kinsey, Kinston.
Lincoln	G. T. Heafner, Crouse.
Macon	M. D. Billings, Franklin.
Madison	M. C. Buckner, Mars Hill.
Martin	R. J. Peele, Williamston.
McDowell	D. F. Giles, Marion.
Mecklenburg	R. J. Cochran, Charlotte.
Mitchell	D. W Greene, Wing.
Montgomery	W. A. Cochran, Troy.
Moore	John A. McLeod, Carthage.
Nash	S. F. Austin, Nashville.
New Hanover	W. Catlett, Wilmington.
Northampton	P. J. Long, Jackson.
Onslow	W. M. Thompson, Richlands.
Orange	S. P. Lockhart, Hillsboro.
Pamlico	H. L. Gibbs, Oriental.
Pasquotank	W. M. Hinton, Elizabeth City.
Pender	T. T. Murphy, Atkinson.
Perquimans	W. G. Gaither, Hertford.
Person	G. F. Holloway, Roxboro.
Pitt	W. H. Ragsdale, Greenville.
Polk	J. R. Foster, Mill Spring.
Randolph	S. T. Lassiter, Asheboro.
Richmond	W. R. Coppedge, Rockingham.
Robeson	J. R. Poole, Lumberton.
NORTH CAROLINA—continued.	
Rockingham	L. N. Hickerson, Reidsville.
Rowan	R. G. Kizer, Salisbury.
Rutherford	B. H. Bridges, Rutherfordton.
Sampson	L. L. Matthews, Clinton.
Scotland	G. H. Russell, Laurinburg.
Stanly	E. F. Eddins, Palmerville.
Stokes	J. T. Smith, Danbury.
Surry	W. M. Cundliff, Siloam.
Swain	J. M. Smiley, Bryson City.
Transylvania	T. C. Henderson, Quebec.
Tyrrell	J. L. Spruill, Columbia.
Union	R. N. Nisbet, Monroe.
Vance	J. C. Kittrell, Henderson.
Wake	Z. V. Judd, Raleigh.
Warren	H. F. Jones, Warrenton.
Washington	John W. Darden, Plymouth.
Watauga	B. B. Dougherty, Boone.
Wayne	E. T. Atkinson, Goldsboro.
Wilkes	C. C. Wright, Hunting Creek.
Wilson	E. J. Barnes, Wilson.
Yadkin	W. D. Martin, East Bend.
Yancey	G. P. Deyton, Toecane.
NORTH DAKOTA.	
Adams	Miss Rose C. Wagner, Hettinger.
Barnes	Miss M. J. Nielson, Valley City.
Benson	Miss E. D. Hoadley, Minnewaukan.
Billings	J. A. Kitchen, Sentinel Butte.
Bottineau	H. E. Layne, Bottineau.
Bowman	H. O. Saxvik, Bowman.
Burke	C. H. Hecht, Bowbells.
Burleigh	C. L. Vigness, Bismarck.
Cass	J. W. Riley, Fargo.
Cavalier	Miss H. J. Sullivan, Langdon.
Dickey	Mrs. G. M. Lovell, Ellendale.
Divide	Miss Emma Cudhie, Crosby.
Dunn	C. L. Melby, Manning.
Eddy	Mrs. E. M. Roach, New Rockford.
Emmons	H. M. Hanson, Linton.
Foster	Miss Mary J. Cain, Carrington.
Grand Forks	Miss H. J. Prindeville, Grand Forks.
Griggs	I. A. Kampen, Cooperstown.
Hettinger	Miss J. K. Steake, Mott.
Kidder	Miss Lydia Hinman, Steele.
Lamoure	Miss L. B. Sanderson, La Moure.
Logan	Herbert Brown, Napoleon.
McHenry	Dalton McDonald, Towner.
McIntosh	E. T. Clyde, Ashley.
McKenzie	Miss N. C. Byrnes, Alexander.
McLean	John L. Brekken, Washburn.
Mercer	E. R. Thomas, Stanton.
Morton	W. F. Lorin, Mandan.
Mountrail	Miss R. Duffy, Stanley.
Nelson	John A. Swenson, Lakota.
Oliver	Mrs. Iva O. Jenness, Hensler.
Pembina	Mrs. I. A. Burley, Pembina.
Pierce	Miss Thea Picard, Rugby.
Ramsey	John A. Haig, Devils Lake.
Ransom	W. G. Crocker, Lisbon.
Renville	Miss M. Sheridan, Mohall.
Richland	F. R. Barnes, Wahpeton.
Rolette	E. M. Sherry, Rolla.
Sargent	Henry Ulve, Forman.
Sheridan	C. F. Eberly, McClusky.
Stark	Miss Mary Nolan, Dickinson.
Steele	Geo. F. Newton, Sherbrooke.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
NORTH DAKOTA—continued.	
Stutsman	Miss M. E. McGinnis, Jamestown.
Towner	Miss M. Sorenson, Cando.
Traill	Miss G. Wambheim, Hillsboro.
Walsh	Edward Erickson, Grafton.
Ward	E. G. Warren, Minot.
Wells	Miss M. T. Regan, Fessenden.
Williams	Mrs. M. P. Tatem, Williston.
OKLAHOMA.	
Adair	J. B. Johnson, Stilwell.
Alfalfa	J. W. Higginbotham, Cherokee.
Atoka	T. S. Norwood, Atoka.
Beaver	John E. Swaim, Beaver.
Beckham	Miss M. Barrett, Sayre.
Blaine	Miss D. M. Pratt, Watonga.
Bryan	C. L. Neeley, Durant.
Caddo	Miss N. Daniels, Anadarko.
Canadian	Miss Irma South, El Reno.
Carter	Fred E. Tucker, Ardmore.
Cherokee	A. K. Ralston, Tahlequah.
Choctaw	J. T. Reed, Hugo.
Cimarron	Walter Kennedy, Boise City.
Cleveland	B. R. McDonald, Norman.
Coal	M. H. Caywood, Coalgate.
Comanche	J. A. Johnson, Lawton.
Craig	H. W. C. Shelton, Vinita.
Creek	Jesse Burgess, Sapulpa.
Custer	Mrs. N. A. Snider, Arapaho.
Delaware	J. Grover Scales, Grove.
Dewey	E. B. Reay, Taloga.
Ellis	J. A. McLain, Arnett.
Garfield	George Rainey, Enid.
Garvin	Miss P. Bradfield, Pauls Valley.
Grady	G. F. Newell, Chickasha.
Grant	Chas. M. Jacobson, Medford.
Greer	Geo. W. Sims, Mangum.
Harmon	G. P. Morton, Hollis.
Harper	Mrs. A. L. Criswell, Buffalo.
Haskell	M. L. Cotton, Stigler.
Hughes	H. S. Mathis, Holdenville.
Jackson	J. M. Dale, Altus.
Jefferson	L. L. Wade, Ryan.
Johnston	Miss L. Daniel, Tishomingo.
Kay	E. A. Duke, Newkirk.
Kingfisher	Geo. E. Moore, Kingfisher.
Kiowa	Miss A. E. Lane, Hobart.
Latimer	A. A. O'Malley, Wilburton.
Le Flore	A. H. Crouthamel, Poteau.
Lincoln	P. G. Rawdon, Chandler.
Logan	Neil Humphrey, Guthrie.
Love	T. D. Felts, Marietta.
McClain	A. J. French, Purcell.
McCurtain	P. K. Faison, Idabell.
McIntosh	Chessie McIntosh, Eufala.
Major	Chas. A. Wright, Fairview.
Marshall	Wesley Fox, Madill.
Mayes	Miss C. Archer, Pryor.
Murray	E. L. Newman, Sulphur.
Muskogee	Ewing N. Collette, Muskogee.
Noble	C. G. Vannest, Perry.
Nowata	Miss J. Mason, Nowata.
Okfuskee	J. D. Nelson, Okemah.
Oklahoma	Mrs. A. B. Love, Oklahoma.
Okmulgee	E. B. Shotwell, Okmulgee.
Osage	W. E. Gill, Pawhuska.
Ottawa	J. T. Davis, Miami.
Pawnee	Jno. Strosnider, Pawnee.
Payne	F. D. Harnden, Stillwater.
Pittsburg	L. E. Christian, McAlester.
OKLAHOMA—contd.	
Pontotoc	T. F. Pierce, Ada.
Pottawatomie	C. Robison, Tecumseh.
Pushmataha	W. C. Payne, Antlers.
Roger Mills	T. C. Moore, Cheyenne.
Rogers	B. H. Hester, Claremore.
Seminole	Dow Dunaway, Wewoka.
Sequoyah	Fred Mershon, Sallisaw.
Stephens	G. A. Witt, Duncan.
Swanson	Joseph Beasley, Snyder.
Texas	Miss N. B. Lynch, Guymon.
Tillman	A. A. Rogers, Frederick.
Tulsa	Wm. Sattgast, Tulsa.
Wagoner	Chas. Comstock, Wagoner.
Washington	Miss A. P. Morgan, Bartlesville.
Washita	T. H. Hubbard, Cordell.
Woods	F. O. Hays, Alva.
Woodward	W. L. Pittman, Woodward.
OREGON.	
Baker	J. F. Smith, Baker City.
Benton	H. L. Mack, Corvallis.
Clackamas	T. J. Gary, Oregon City.
Clatsop	Emma C. Warren, Astoria.
Columbia	J. H. Collins, St. Helens.
Coos	W. H. Bunch, Coquille.
Crook	R. A. Ford, Prineville.
Curry	W. S. Guerin, Langlois.
Douglas	T. Chaney, Roseburg.
Gilliam	J. C. Sturgill, Condon.
Grant	W. W. Austen, Hamilton.
Harney	L. M. Hamilton, Burns.
Hood River	C. D. Thompson, Hood River.
Jackson	J. Percy Wells, Jacksonville.
Josephine	L. Savage, Grants Pass.
Klamath	J. G. Swan, Klamath Falls.
Lake	J. Q. Willits, Lakeview.
Lane	H. C. Baughman, Eugene.
Lincoln	R. P. Goin, Toledo.
Linn	W. L. Jackson, Albany.
Malheur	B. L. Milligan, Ontario.
Marion	W. M. Smith, Salem.
Morrow	S. E. Notson, Heppner.
Multnomah	R. F. Robinson, Portland.
Polk	H. C. Seymour, Dallas.
Sherman	W. C. Bryant, Moro.
Tillamook	W. S. Buel, Tillamook.
Umatilla	F. K. Welles, Pendleton.
Union	E. E. Bragg, La Grande.
Wallowa	J. C. Conley, Enterprise.
Wasco	Justus T. Neff, The Dalles.
Washington	M. C. Case, Hillsboro.
Wheeler	H. J. Simmons, Fossil.
Yamhill	S. S. Duncan, McMinnville.
PENNSYLVANIA.	
Adams	H. Milton Roth, Gettysburg.
Allegheny	Saml. Hamilton, Wilkinsburg.
Armstrong	W. A. Patton, Kittanning.
Beaver	David C. Locke, Monaca.
Bedford	V. E. P. Barkman, Bedford.
Berks	E. M. Rapp, Reading.
Blair	T. S. Davis, Altoona.
Bradford	H. S. Putnam, Towanda.
Bucks	J. H. Hoffman, Doylestown.
Butler	F. A. McClung, Butler.
Cambria	M. S. Benz, Ebensburg.
Cameron	C. E. Plasterer, Emporium.
Carbon	J. J. Bevan, Mauch Chunk.
Center	D. O. Etters, State College.
Chester	G. W. Moore, Ercildoun.
Clarion	N. E. Heeter, Clarion.
Clearfield	Wm. E. Tobias, Clearfield.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
PENNSYLVANIA—continued.	
Clinton	I. N. McCloskey, Lock Haven.
Columbia	Wm. W. Evans, Bloomsburg.
Crawford	P. D. Blair, Meadville.
Cumberland	J. Kelso Green, Carlisle.
Dauphin	H. V. B. Garver, Middletown.
Delaware	A. G. C. Smith, Media.
Elk	J. W. Sweeney, St. Marys.
Erie	I. H. Russell, North East.
Fayette	C. G. Lewellyn, Brownsville.
Forest	J. O. Carson, Tionesta.
Franklin	L. E. Smith, Chambersburg.
Fulton	B. C. Lamberson, McConnellsburg.
Greene	H. D. Freeland, Waynesburg.
Huntingdon	J. G. Dell, Huntingdon.
Indiana	J. F. Chapman, Indiana.
Jefferson	L. Mayne Jones, Brookville.
Juniata	Josiah H. Deen, Academia.
Lackawanna	J. C. Taylor, Scranton.
Lancaster	Daniel Fleisher, Lancaster.
Lawrence	W. Lee Gilmore, New Castle.
Lebanon	John W. Snoke, Lebanon.
Lehigh	Alvin Rupp, Allentown.
Luzerne	F. P. Hopper, Wilkes-Barre.
Lycoming	G. B. Milnor, Muncy.
McKean	C. W. Lillibridge, Smethport.
Mercer	H. E. McConnell, Mercer.
Mifflin	James F. Wills, Belleville.
Monroe	Frank Koehler, Stroudsburg.
Montgomery	J. H. Landis, Norristown.
Montour	C. W. Derr, Washingtonville.
Northampton	Geo. A. Grim, Nazareth.
Northumberland	I. H. Mauser, Sunbury.
Perry	D. A. Kline, New Bloomfield.
Pike	L. Westbrook, Matamoras.
Potter	R. O. Welpling, Coudersport.
Schuylkill	L. Seltzer, Pottsville.
Snyder	T. A. Stetler, Middleburg.
Somerset	D. W. Seibert, Somerset.
Sullivan	J. E. R. Kilgore, Dushore.
Susquehanna	Geo. A. Stearns, Kingsley.
Tioga	E. A. Retan, Mansfield.
Union	Wm. W. Spigelmyer, Mifflinburg.
Venango	D. W. Armstrong, Franklin.
Warren	C. S. Knapp, Warren.
Washington	L. R. Crumrine, Washington.
Wayne	J. J. Koehler, Honesdale.
Westmoreland	Robt. C. Shaw, Greensburg.
Wyoming	F. H. Jarvis, Tunkhannock.
York	C. W. Stine, York.
SOUTH CAROLINA.	
Abbeville	J. F. Hammond, Abbeville.
Aiken	C. H. Seigler, Aiken.
Anderson	R. A. Abrams, Anderson.
Bamberg	R. W. D. Rowell, Bamberg.
Barnwell	H. J. Crouch, Barnwell.
Beaufort	B. H. Boyd, Hardeeville.
Berkeley	C. W. Sanders, Moncks Corner.
Calhoun	D. S. Murph, St. Matthews.
Charleston	E. P. Waring, Charleston.
Cherokee	E. S. McKown, Gaffney.
Chester	W. D. Knox, Chester.
Chesterfield	Kirby Rivers, Chesterfield.
Clarendon	E. J. Browne, Manning.
Colleton	H. W. Black, Walterboro.
Darlington	T. E. Stokes, Darlington.
Dillon	R. S. Rogers, Dillon.
Dorchester	J. J. Howell, St. George.
Edgefield	W. W. Fuller, Edgefield.
SOUTH CAROLINA—continued.	
Fairfield	T. M. Jordan, Winnsboro.
Florence	A. H. Gasque, Florence.
Georgetown	J. W. Doar, Georgetown.
Greenville	J. B. Davis, Greenville.
Greenwood	J. F. Wideman, Greenwood.
Hampton	J .W. Rouse, Hampton.
Horry	S. H. Brown, Conway.
Jasper	R. M. Jefferies, Ridgeland.
Kershaw	I. J. McKenzie, Camden.
Lancaster	A. C. Rowell, Lancaster.
Laurens	Geo. L. Pitts, Laurens.
Lee	J. T. Munnerlyn, Bishopville.
Lexington	A. D. Martin, Lexington.
Marion	W. C. Rogers, Marion.
Marlboro	A. L. Easterling, Bennettsville.
Newberry	E. H. Aull, Newberry.
Oconee	W. C. Hughs, Walhalla.
Orangeburg	L. W. Livingston, Orangeburg.
Pickens	R. T. Hallum, Pickens.
Richland	S. M. Clarkson, Columbia.
Saluda	J. A. Carson, Saluda.
Spartanburg	J. H. Brannon, Spartanburg.
Sumter	J. H. Haynsworth, Sumter.
Union	T. H. Gore, Union.
Williamsburg	J. G. McCullough, Kingstree.
York	J. W. Quinn, Yorkville.
SOUTH DAKOTA.	
Aurora	D. F. Baughman, Plankinton.
Brown	M. M. Guhin, Aberdeen.
Beadle	Fred L. Shaw, Huron.
Bennett	Minnie C. Robertson, Allen.
Bonhomme	Mrs. M. E. Muller, Tyndall.
Brookings	Gertrude Stedman, Brookings.
Brule	Evalina Rossman, Chamberlain.
Buffalo	Nettie S. Fraser, Gann Valley.
Butte	Susie Bird, Bellefourche.
Campbell	A. Wosnuk, Mound City.
Custer	Mary Heumphreus, Custer.
Codington	C. K. Overhulse, Watertown.
Corson	C. H. Belknapp, McIntosh.
Clay	Alice Cope, Vermillion.
Clark	J. W. Cotes, Clark.
Charles Mix	J. V. Murphy, Platte.
Davison	O. E. Browne, Mitchell.
Day	J. H. Hetley, Webster.
Deuel	W. G. Parish, Clear Lake.
Dewey	P. S. Jones, Timber Lake.
Douglas	T. J. Markey, Armour.
Edmunds	Jannette Lewis, Ipswich.
Fall River	Irene Ferguson, Hot Springs.
Faulk	Mrs. Hattie Marsh, Faulkton.
Gregory	G. G. Warner, Fairfax.
Grant	Fred B. Purdy, Milbank.
Hand	May Rudd, Miller.
Harding	Anna J. Sparks, Buffalo.
Hutchinson	F. C. Beers, Parkston.
Hanson	Ethelyn Graves, Alexandria.
Hamlin	Allin Axford, Castlewood.
Hughes	Wallace Calhoun, Pierre.
Hyde	Nettie W. Welch, Highmore.
Jerauld	Florence Murray, Wessington Springs.
Kingsbury	H. M. Best, De Smet.
Lake	Mrs. A. C. Odee, Madison.
Lawrence	Florence Glenn, Deadwood.
Lincoln	Dilla E. Wimple, Canton.
Lyman	C. Ina Sutley, Oacoma.
McCook	E. A. Kaech, Salem.
Meade	Mary Daly, Sturgis.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
SOUTH DAKOTA—continued.	
Mellette	Sadie E. Shives, White River.
Moody	Daisy D. Carr, Flandreau.
McPherson	Lynn Slocum, Leola.
Marshall	Elise V. Horck, Britton.
Minnehaha	T. T. Thompson, Sioux Falls.
Miner	Nellie C. Dolaney, Howard.
Perkins	Frank Salisbury, Bison.
Potter	W. J. Breene, Gettysburg.
Pennington	Mattie McMichael, Rapid City.
Roberts	Bonnie F. Andrews, Sisseton.
Sanborn	Mrs. N. Cook, Woonsocket.
Stanley	Grace R. Porter, Fort Pierre.
Spink	W. H. Beckman, Redfield.
Sully	T. L. Mitchell, Onida.
Tripp	Mary B. Campbell, Winner.
Turner	Joseph Swenson, Parker.
Union	Kathryn French, Elk Point.
Walworth	Guy Schellenger, Selby.
Yankton	Theodore Halla, Yankton.
Ziebach	G. M. Drummond, Dupree.
TENNESSEE.	
Anderson	Allan C. Duggins, Clinton.
Bedford	W. E. Thompson, Unionville.
Benton	M. L. Hardin, Camden.
Bledsoe	Mrs. C. T. Chisam, Pikeville.
Blount	H. B. McCall, Maryville.
Bradley	S. Y. Adcock, Cleveland.
Campbell	E. A. Gaylor, Coal Creek.
Cannon	L. E. Summers, Woodbury.
Carroll	D. T. Barnhill, Lavinia.
Carter	M. D. Allen, Elizabethton.
Cheatham	P. H. Duke, Ashland City.
Chester	N. B. Hardeman, Henderson.
Claiborne	Geo. N. Cupp, New Tazewell.
Clay	J. T. Ford, Selina.
Cocke	R. P. Driskell, Newport.
Coffee	J. G. Warden, Manchester.
Crockett	J. R. McDonald, Bells.
Cumberland	J. S. Cline, Crossville.
Davidson	Walter Anderson, Nashville.
Decatur	G. L. Wortham, Decaturville.
Dekalb	Jno. S. Wood, Smithville.
Dickson	R. E. Corlew, Charlotte.
Dyer	Miss J. D. Walker, Dyersburg.
Fayette	D. K. Donnell, Rossville.
Fentress	W. E. Mullinix, Jamestown.
Franklin	Austin W. Smith, Winchester.
Gibson	J. B. Cummings, Trenton.
Giles	B. H. Gaultney, Pulaski.
Grainger	H. G. Farmer, Rutledge.
Greene	Mrs. J. F. King, Greeneville.
Grundy	Jno. T. White, Pelham.
Hamblen	J. D. Self, Morristown.
Hamilton	J. B. Brown, Chattanooga.
Hancock	M. E. Testerman, Kyles Ford.
Hardeman	J. A. Alford, Bolivar.
Hardin	C. A. Lowe, Savannah.
Hawkins	C. H. Richardson, Rogersville.
Haywood	T. R. Ogilvie, Brownsville.
Henderson	W. H. Dennison, Lexington.
Henry	Joe Routon, Paris.
Hickman	G. C. Harvill, Centerville.
Houston	D. J. McAulay, Erin.
Humphreys	W. L. Rochelle, Waverly.
Jackson	J. F. Gaines, Gainesboro.
James	J. D. Campbell, Ooltewah.
Jefferson	W. E. Woodward, Dandridge.
Johnson	F. C. Dougherty, Mountain City.
Knox	M. W. Wilson, Knoxville.
TENNESSEE—con.	
Lake	R. C. Donaldson, Tiptonville.
Lauderdale	G. C. McLeod, Ripley.
Lawrence	Jesse McArtor, Lawrenceburg.
Lewis	Jno. A. White, Hohenwald.
Lincoln	Jesse Hardin, Fayetteville.
Loudon	J. C. McTeer, Loudon.
McMinn	M. R. M. Burke, Athens.
McNairy	Terry Abernathy, Selmer.
Macon	H. H. Houser, Red Boiling Springs.
Madison	R. E. L. Bynum, Jackson.
Marion	A. S. Kelly, Jasper.
Marshall	J. G. Stinson, Lewisburg.
Maury	J, P. Graham, Columbia.
Meigs	L. F. Rice, Decatur.
Monroe	S. F. Parker, Madisonville.
Montgomery	Elliott Buckner, Clarksville.
Moore	Miss Cora Wiseman, Lynchburg.
Morgan	J. C. Webster, Wartburg.
Obion	C. L. Ridings, Union City.
Overton	A. J. Taylor, Livingston.
Perry	R. H. Gray, Beardstown.
Pickett	W. J. Babb, Byrdstown.
Polk	W. B. Rucker, Benton.
Putnam	J. M. Hatfield, Cookeville.
Rhea	W. E. Stephens, Dayton.
Roane	E. B. Booth, Kingston.
Robertson	O. H. Bernard, Springfield.
Rutherford	J. D. Jacobs, Murfreesboro.
Scott	M. L. McDonald, Huntsville.
Sequatchie	W. V. Freiley, Dunlap.
Sevier	J. R. Keeble, Sevierville.
Shelby	Miss Mabel Williams, Memphis.
Smith	J. C. Nichols, Elmwood.
Stewart	W. C. Howell, Dover.
Sullivan	J. E. L. Seneker, Blountville.
Sumner	T. W. Hunter, Gallatin.
Tipton	L. E. Gwinn, Covington.
Trousdale	W. T. Calle, Hartsville.
Unicoi	R. W. H. Gilbert, Erwin.
Union	Jas. H. Keller, Maynardville.
Van Buren	W. C. Sparkman, Sparkman.
Warren	J. B. Clark, McMinnville.
Washington	E. S. Depew, Jonesboro.
Wayne	J. W. Gallien, Pleasant Valley.
Weakley	Syl Fisher, Sharon.
White	J. W. McPeak, Sparta.
Williamson	Fred J. Page, Franklin.
Wilson	W. H. Knox, Watertown, R. F. D. 1.
TEXAS.	
Anderson	J. G. H. Buck, Palestine.
Andrews[1]	N. P. Ross, Andrews.
Angelina	H. B. Stegall, Lufkin.
Aransas[1]	F. Stevens, Rockport.
Archer[1]	C. H. Henley, Archer City.
Armstrong[1]	J. S. Stallings, Claude.
Atascosa	W. M. Abernethy, Jourdanton.
Austin	L. H. Baron, Bellville.
Bailey[1]	M. F. Barber, Dimmitt.
Bandera[1]	J. W. Currie, Bandera.
Bastrop	T. N. Powell, Bastrop.
Baylor[1]	Nat. G. Mitchell, Seymour.
Bee	Miss Lida Dougherty, Beeville.
Bell	J. S. Morgan, Belton.
Bexar	P. F. Stewart, San Antonio.
Blanco[1]	John A. Brown, Johnson City.

[1] County judge is ex officio county superintendent.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.	County.	Superintendent.
TEXAS—continued.		TEXAS—continued.	
Borden [1]	J. J. Good, Gail.	Gillespie [1]	Max Blum, Fredericksburg.
Bosque	C. L. Batson, Meridian.	Glasscock [1]	G. L. Bogard, Garden City.
Bowie	Lee Tidwell, Boston.	Goliad [1]	H. J. Passmore, Goliad.
Brazoria	J. P. Taylor, Angleton.	Gonzales	A. B. Corder, Gonzales.
		Gray [1]	R. E. Williams, Lefors.
Brazos	T. W. Parker, Bryan.	Grayson	Tom Smith, Sherman.
Brewster [1]	A. M. Turney, Alpine.		
Briscoe [1]	Fred Biffle, Silverton.	Gregg	J. Henry Smith, Longview.
Brooks [1]	J. A. Brooks, Falfurrias.	Grimes	W. S. Barron, Anderson.
Brown	Courtney Gray, Brownwood.	Guadalupe	J. B. Williams, Seguin.
Burleson	Frank Kadanki, Caldwell.	Hale [1]	George L. Mayfield, Plain view.
Burnet [1]	J. G. Cook, Burnet.		
Caldwell	Joseph Hatchett, Lockhart.	Hall [1]	John D. Bird, Memphis.
Calhoun [1]	Willett Wilson, Port Lavaca.	Hamilton	B. H. Hill, Hamilton.
Callahan	W. C. Tisdale, Baird.	Hansford [1]	C. C. Beck, Hansford.
		Hardeman [1]	W. S. Banister, Quanah.
Cameron	E. H. Goodrich, Brownsville.	Hardin	Eugene Oliver, Kountze.
Camp [1]	C. G. Engledow, Pittsburg.	Harris	L. L. Pugh, Houston.
Carson [1]	Fayette Ratliff, Panhandle.		
Cass	M. G. Bates, Linden.	Harrison	J. W. Cypress, Marshall.
Castro [1]	M. F. Barber, Dimmitt.	Hartley [1]	R. R. Elkin, Channing.
Chambers [1]	H. H. Jackson, Anahuac.	Haskell	T. C. Williams, Haskell.
Cherokee	E. L. Penland, Rusk.	Hays	John H. Saunders, San Marcos.
Childress [1]	W. G. Gross, Childress.	Hemphill	J. L. Jennings, Canadian.
Clay	J. S. Holaday, Henrietta.	Henderson	C. D. Owen, Athens.
Coke [1]	G. S. Arnold, Robert Lee.	Hidalgo	R. A. Marsh, Edinburg.
		Hill	Fred J. Shipley, Hillsboro.
Coleman	G. W. McDonald, Coleman.	Hockley [1]	John R. McGee, Lubbock.
Collin	G. W. West, McKinney.	Hood [1]	J. P. Mahan, Granbury.
Collingsworth [1]	R. H. Cocke, jr., Wellington.		
Colorado	C. K. Quin, Columbus.	Hopkins	John Hurley, Sulphur Springs.
Comal [1]	Adolf Stein, New Braunfels.		
Comanche	W. D. Jenkins, Comanche.	Houston	J. F. Mangum, Crockett.
Concho [1]	C. F. Cottrell, Paint Rock.	Howard [1]	M. H. Morrison, Big Springs.
Cooke	E. N. Blackburn, Gainesville.	Hunt	J. A. Thomas, Greenville.
Coryell	A. M. Sams, Gatesville.	Hutchison [1]	R. A. Spurlock, Plemons.
Cottle [1]	W. E. Prescott, Paducah.	Irion [1]	W. F. Fokes, Sherwood.
		Jack	C. C. Bock, Jacksboro.
Crane [1]	L. M. Wilson, Odessa.	Jackson [1]	L. F. Wells, Edna.
Crockett [1]	Chas. E. Davidson, Ozona.	Jasper	I. S. Bean, Jasper.
Crosby [1]	Pink L. Parrish, Crosbyton.	Jeff Davis [1]	J. P. Weatherby, Fort Davis.
Culberson [1]	Joe Irby, Van Horn.		
Dallam [1]	C. S. Harrington, Dalhart.	Jefferson	W. H. Farmer, Beaumont.
Dallas	M. F. Horton, Dallas.	Jim Wells [1]	W. R. Perkins, Alice.
Dawson [1]	J. M. Baker, Lamesa.	Johnson	W. J. Carrell, Cleburne.
Deaf Smith [1]	C. D. Wright, Hereford.	Jones	L. T. Cunningham, Anson.
Delta	E. A. Watson, Cooper.	Karnes	J. H. Blanton, Karnes City.
Denton	J. J. McCook, Denton.	Kaufman	J. B. Weaver, Kaufman.
		Kendall [1]	J. W. Lawhon, Boerne.
De Witt	L. G. Covey, Cuero.	Kent [1]	B. L. Glenn, Clairemont.
Dickens [1]	F. C. Gipson, Dickens.	Kerr [1]	Lee Wallace, Kerrville.
Dimmit [1]	J. B. Gibson, Carrizo Springs.	Kimble [1]	W. A. Spencer, Junction City.
Donley [1]	J. H. O'Neal, Clarendon.		
Duval [1]	S. H. Woods, San Diego.	King [1]	Jas. H. Lynn, Guthrie.
Eastland	C. D. Judd, Eastland.	Kinney [1]	Joseph Veltman, Brackettville.
Ector [1]	L. M. Wilson, Odessa.		
Edwards [1]	A. P. Allison, Rock Springs.	Knox [1]	J. H. Milam, Benjamin.
Ellis	E. G. Grafton, Waxahachie.	Lamar	W. H. Snow, Paris.
El Paso	J. E. Rainer, El Paso.	Lamb [1]	H. R. Miller, Olton.
		Lampasas [1]	M. M. White, Lampasas.
Erath	W. G. Sears, Stephenville.	La Salle [1]	C. C. Thomas, Cotulla.
Falls	A. W. Eddins, Marlin.	Lavaca	William Eilers, Hallettsville.
Fannin	R. M. Parker, Bonham.	Lee	C. M. Bishop, Giddings.
Fayette	G. A. Stierling, La Grange.	Leon	J. M. Henderson, Centerville.
Fisher	W. R. Timmons, Roby.		
Floyd [1]	F. P. Henry, Floydada.	Liberty [1]	I. B. Simmons, Liberty.
Foard [1]	T. W. Staton, Crowell.	Limestone	J. T. Cox, Groesbeck.
Fort Bend	John H. Stanley, Richmond.	Lipscomb [1]	P. B. Mills, Lipscomb.
Franklin [1]	G. E. Cowan, Mount Vernon.	Live Oak [1]	W. A. Hill, Oakville.
Freestone	B. S. Fryer, Fairfield.	Llano [1]	A. H. Wilbern, Llano.
		Loving [1]	John Y. Leavell, Pecos.
Frio [1]	S. T. Dowe, Pearsall.	Lubbock [1]	John R. McGee, Lubbock.
Gaines [1]	D. J. Thomas, Seminole.	Lynn [1]	G. W. Perryman, Tahoka.
Galveston	J. M. Fendley, Galveston.	Madison [1]	Thos. D. Clark, Madisonville.
Garza [1]	J. M. Boren, Post City.	Marion	Alice Emmert, Jefferson.

[1] County judge is ex officio county superintendent.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
TEXAS—continued.	
Martin[1]	J. Turner Vance, Stanton.
Mason[1]	S. A. McCallum, Mason.
Matagorda	Thomas H. Lewis, Bay City.
Maverick[1]	Ben V. King, Eagle Pass.
McCulloch	J. K. Baze, Brady.
McLennan	R. L. Abbott, Waco.
McMullen[1]	J. W. Martin, Tilden.
Medina	W. N. Saathoff, Hondo.
Menard[1]	J. D. Scruggs, Menardville.
Midland[1]	J. H. Knowles, Midland.
Milam	Frank J. Clement, Cameron.
Mills[1]	S. H. Allen, Goldthwaite.
Mitchell[1]	A. J. Coe, Colorado.
Montague	W. W. Snodgrass, Montague.
Montgomery	N. E. Heard, Conroe.
Moore[1]	J. W. Fox, Dumas.
Morris[1]	C. M. Henderson, Daingerfield.
Motley[1]	W. T. Patton, Matador.
Nacogdoches	W. B. Hargis, Nacogdoches.
Navarro	O. L. Albritton, Corsicana.
Newton[1]	G. C. Colson, Newton.
Nolan[1]	John J. Ford, Sweetwater.
Nueces	Nat Benton, Corpus Christi.
Ochiltree[1]	R. I. Hanna, Ochiltree.
Oldham[1]	T. B. Jones, Tascosa.
Orange[1]	O. R. Sholars, Orange.
Palo Pinto	H. T. Beckworth, Palo Pinto
Panola	Andrew J. Holmes, Carthage.
Parker	T. P. Everett, Weatherford.
Parmer[1]	R. W. McConnell, Farwell.
Pecos[1]	John M. Odom, Fort Stockton.
Polk	R. H. Jones, Livingston.
Potter[1]	W. M. Jeter, Amarillo.
Presidio[1]	W. W. Bogel, Marfa.
Rains[1]	O. H. Rodes, Emory.
Randall[1]	W. D. Scott, Canyon.
Reagan[1]	W. B. Moore, Stiles.
Red River	A. W. Diffle, Clarksville.
Reeves[1]	John Y. Leavell, Pecos.
Refugio[1]	W. L. Rea, Refugio.
Roberts[1]	J. E. Kinney, Miami.
Robertson	Otho Baxter, Franklin.
Rockwall[1]	H. M. Wade, Rockwall.
Runnels	E. L. Hagan, Ballinger.
Rusk	C. A. Jay, Henderson.
Sabine[1]	T. R. Smith, Hemphill.
San Augustine[1]	W. C. Ramsey, San Augustine.
San Jacinto[1]	E. W. Love, Cold Springs.
San Patricio[1]	P. A. Hunter, Sinton.
San Saba[1]	J. T. Hartley, San Saba.
Schleicher[1]	Joab Campbell, Eldorado.
Scurry[1]	Fritz R. Smith, Snyder.
Shackelford[1]	J. A. King, Albany.
Shelby	W. C. Hurst, Center.
Sherman[1]	J. W. Elliott, Stratford.
Smith	A. W. Orr, Tyler.
Somervell[1]	J. G. Adams, Glen Rose.
Starr	Sam P. Vale, Rio Grande City.
Stephens[1]	N. N. Rosenquest, Breckenridge.
Sterling[1]	B. F. Brown, Sterling City.
Stonewall[1]	W. J. Arrington, Aspermont.
Sutton[1]	E. S. Briant, Sonora.
Swisher[1]	W. F. Hendrix, Tulia.
Tarrant	Lee M. Hammond, Fort Worth.
Taylor	E. V. White, Abilene.
Terrell[1]	J. B. Ross, Sanderson.
Terry[1]	George W. Neill, Brownfield.
Throckmorton[1]	T. J. Wright, Throckmorton.
Titus	P. H. Rogers, Mount Pleasant.
Tom Green	W. L. Hughes, San Angelo.
Travis	Wade M. Smith, jr., Austin.
Trinity	W. B. Mills, Groveton.
Tyler	Grover C. Lowe, Woodville.
Upshur	A. F. Shepperd, Gilmer.
Upton[1]	L. W. Ainsworth, Upland.
Uvalde[1]	T. M. Milam, Uvalde.
Val Verde	N. S. Jones, Del Rio.
Van Zandt	F. M. Chancellor, Canton.
Victoria	I. E. Ratcliff, Victoria.
Walker	C. A. Bennick, Huntsville.
Waller	T. A. Kelley, Hempstead.
Ward[1]	J. E. Starley, Barstow.
Washington	C. Klaener, Brenham.
Webb	B. Richardson, Laredo.
Wharton	Oswald Garrett, Wharton.
Wheeler[1]	J. B. Reynolds, Wheeler.
Wichita	H. A. Fairchild, Wichita Falls.
Wilbarger	E. L. Witty, Vernon.
Williamson	Joe A. Hudson, Georgetown.
Wilson	J. E. Swift, Floresville.
Winkler[1]	L. B. Murray, Kermit.
Wise	D. J. Simpson, Decatur.
Wood	J. U. Searcy, Quitman.
Yoakum[1]	W. Holmes, Plains.
Young	R. Lindsey, Graham.
Zapata[1]	A. P. Spohn, Zapata.
Zavala[1]	O. A. Mills, Batesville.
UTAH.	
Beaver	William Joseph, Minersville.
Boxelder	D. C. Jensen, Brigham City.
Cache	R. V. Larson, Logan.
Carbon	C. R. Marcusen, Price.
Davis	H. C. Burton, Kaysville.
Emery	Nephi Williams, Castle Dale.
Garfield	O. G. Anderson, Cannonville.
Grand	C. A. Johnson, Moab.
Iron	R. J. Bryant, Cedar City.
Juab	Ivan C. Dalby, Levan.
Kane	Josephine Seaman, Glendale.
Millard	A. J. Ashman, Fillmore.
Morgan	Victor R. Bohman, Morgan.
Piute	Wm. J. Luke, Kingston.
Rich	John Benson, Randolph.
Salt Lake:	
Granite district	B. W. Ashton, Salt Lake City.
Jordan district	Orson Ryan, Midvale.
San Juan	A. B. Barton, Bluff City.
Sanpete	A. J. Rees, Wales.
Sevier	E. M. Greenwood, Elsinore.
Summit	G. A. Cooper, Kamas.
Tooele	Lillian Rowberry, Grantsville.
Uinta	N. G. Sowards, Vernal.
Utah	J. Preston Creer, Spanish Fork.
Wasatch	D. A. Broadbent, Heber City.
Washington	E. H. Snow, St. George.
Wayne	Joseph Eckersley, Loa.
Weber	W. N. Petterson, Ogden.
VIRGINIA.[2]	
Accomac	G. G. Joynes, Onancock.
Albemarle	J. W. Everett, Keswick.
Alexandria	W. T. Hodges, Rosslyn.
Alleghany	J. G. Jeter, Covington.
Amelia	C. B. Bowry, Burkeville.
Amherst	F. C. Campbell, Madison Heights.

[1] County judge is ex officio county superintendent.

[2] Division superintendents.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
VIRGINIA—contd.	
Appomattox	J. Kirk Hannah, Appomattox.
Augusta	F. M. Somerville, Staunton, R. F. D. 6.
Bath	Grattan Payne, Hot Springs.
Bedford	S. S. Lambeth, jr., Bedford City.
Bland	Frank L. Dunn, Bland.
Botetourt	Cary Breckenridge, Fincastle.
Brunswick	W. B. Valentine, Lawrenceville.
Buchanan	W. L. Ownbey, Grundy.
Buckingham	P. F. Jones, Arvonia.
Buena Vista	J. P. McCluer, Buena Vista.
Campbell	W. L. Garbee, Lawyers.
Caroline	John Washington, Milford.
Carroll	E. M. Cooley, Pipers Gap.
Charles City	W. B. Coggin, Providence Forge.
Charlotte	S. P. Daniel, Drakes Branch.
Charlottesville	J. G. Johnson, Charlottesville.
Chesterfield	W. G. Owens, Richmond.
Clarke	C. G. Massey, White Post.
Craig	W. O. Martin, New Castle.
Culpeper	J. M. Beckham, Culpeper.
Cumberland	C. W. Dickinson, jr., Cartersville.
Dickenson	I. E. French, Clintwood.
Dinwiddie	E. C. Powell, McKenney.
Elizabeth City	John M. Willis, Hampton.
Essex	W. G. Reynolds, Center Cross.
Fairfax	M. D. Hall, Burke.
Fauquier	E. Albert Smith, Warrenton.
Floyd	P. F. Shelton, Basham.
Fluvanna	T. H. Shepherd, Wilmington.
Franklin	H. D. Dillard, Rocky Mount.
Frederick	M. M. Lynch, Winchester.
Giles	C. A. Hardwick, Newport.
Gloucester	R. A. Folkes, Gloucester.
Goochland	C. W. Dickinson, jr., Cartersville.
Grayson	W. S. Hale, Elk Creek.
Greene	J. N. Miller, Haywood.
Greenesville	Henry Maclin, North Emporia.
Halifax	H. J. Watkins, South Boston.
Hanover	H. Carter Redd, Beaver Dam.
Henrico	A. D. Wright, Richmond.
Henry	J. R. Gregory, Martinsville.
Highland	Grattan Payne, Hot Springs.
Isle of Wight	Gavin Rawls, Carrsville.
James City	M. J. Hoover, Williamsburg.
King and Queen	A. L. Terrell, King William Court House.
King George	D. F. Coakley, Ferrell.
King William	A. L. Terrell, King William Court House.
Lancaster	Frank W. Lewis, Morattico.
Lee	J. C. Boatright, Jonesville.
Loudoun	W. G. Edmondson, Paeonian Springs.
Louisa	Frank T. West, Trevilians.
Lunenburg	I. T. Winkinson, Kenbridge.
Lynchburg	E. C. Glass, Lynchburg.
Madison	J. N. Miller, Haywood.
Mathews	E. C. Percifull, Nesting.
Mecklenburg	F. C. Bedinger, Boydton.
Middlesex	E. C. Percifull, Nesting.
Montgomery	J. H. Stephens, Cambria.
Nansemond	Lee Britt, Suffolk.
Nelson	H. T. Harris, Lovingston.
New Kent	W. B. Coggin, Providence Forge.
Norfolk	A. H. Foreman, Norfolk.
Northampton	E. G. Tankard, Nassawadox.
Northumberland	F. W. Lewis, Morattico.
VIRGINIA—contd.	
Nottoway	C. B. Bowry, Burkeville.
Orange	C. P. Cowherd, Gordonsville.
Page	John H. Booton, Luray.
Patrick	G. W. Via, Woolwine.
Pittsylvania	Fletcher B. Watson, Chatham.
Powhatan	Wm. U. Kennon, Boscobel.
Prince Edward	P. T. Atkinson, Hampden-Sidney.
Prince George	W. W. Edwards, Waverly.
Princess Anne	O. B. Mears, Norfolk, R. F. D. 2.
Prince William	G. G. Tyler, Haymarket.
Pulaski	E. L. Darst, Dublin.
Rappahannock	John H. Booton, Luray.
Richmond	W. G. Reynolds, Center Cross.
Roanoke	R. E. Cook, Salem.
Rockbridge	Geo. W. Effinger, Lexington.
Rockingham	G. H. Hulvey, Harrisonburg.
Russell	H. W. Fugate, Fugates Hill.
Scott	W. D. Smith, Gate City.
Shenandoah	Philip Williams, Woodstock.
Smyth	B. E. Copenhaver, Marion.
Southampton	Wm. W. White, Sebrell.
Spotsylvania	James Ashby, Musselman.
Stafford	James Ashby, Musselman.
Surry	L. N. Savedge, Alliance.
Sussex	W. W. Edwards, Waverly.
Tazewell	W. A. Thompson, Tazewell.
Warren	T. V. Leach, Front Royal.
Warwick	J. S. Eastman, Newport News.
Washington	W. J. Edmondson, Lodi.
Westmoreland	G. W. Murphy, Tucker Hill.
Wise	J. N. Hillman, Coeburn.
Wythe	Geo. R. Huffard, Wytheville.
York	J. S. Eastman, Newport News.
WASHINGTON.	
Adams	Carolyn Fritz, Ritzville.
Asotin	W. J. Jerome, Asotin.
Benton	Wata J. Jones, Prosser.
Chehalis	N. D. McKillip, Montesano.
Chelan	Viletta H. Guthrie, Wenatchee.
Clallam	Mrs. I. M. McNutt, Port Angeles.
Clarke	J. V. Fike, Vancouver.
Columbia	Flora Morgan, Dayton.
Cowlitz	G. N. Campbell, Kalama.
Douglas	T. C. Hartley, Waterville.
Ferry	E. D. Houghland, Republic.
Franklin	J. K. Busch, Pasco.
Garfield	Mrs. M. E. Liggett, Pomeroy.
Grant	C. E. Smith, Ephrata.
Island	Lena Kohne, Coupeville.
Jefferson	J. D. Phillips, Port Townsend.
King	A. S. Burrows, Seattle.
Kitsap	T. E. Hulse, Port Orchard.
Kittitas	Mrs. G. L. Barkley, Ellensburg.
Klickitat	T. C. Anderson, Goldendale.
Lewis	M. L. Carrier, Chehalis.
Lincoln	Wm. U. Neeley, Davenport.
Mason	Ada F. Myers, Shelton.
Okanogan	W. E. Gamble, Conconully.
Pacific	Lottie Bode, South Bend.
Pend Oreille	Hester C. Soules, Newport.
Pierce	H. R. Cox, Tacoma.
San Juan	Nellie Sweeney, Friday Harbor.
Skagit	Thomas Roush, Mt. Vernon.
Skamania	Mrs. Lillie Miller, Stevenson.
Snohomish	Mrs. Lizzie Jones, Everett.
Spokane	F. V. Yeager, Spokane.
Stevens	A. D. Foster, Colville.
Thurston	L. A. Kibbe, Olympia.

V.—County Superintendents—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.
WASHINGTON—con.	
Wahkiakum	D. R. McIntosh, Cathlamet.
Walla Walla	Mrs. J. Preston, Walla Walla.
Whatcom	Delia L. Keeler, Bellingham.
Whitman	J. O. Mattoon, Colfax.
Yakima	S. S. Busch, North Yakima.
WEST VIRGINIA.	
Barbour	Cleophas Marsh, Philippi.
Berkeley	E. N. Zeilor, Inwood.
Boone	W. W. Nelson, Turtle Creek.
Braxton	W. B. Golden, Flatwoods.
Brooke	S. C. Underwood, Wellsburg.
Cabell	J. C. Petit, Ona.
Calhoun	W. Chenoweth, Euclid.
Clay	J. F. Wilson, Clay.
Doddridge	L. L. Sadler, West Union.
Fayette	J. T. Peters, Dothan.
Gilmer	J. E. Hays, Troy.
Grant	G. B. Harmon, Maysville.
Greenbrier	Chas. Tabscott, Richlands.
Hampshire	Ira V. Cowgill, Romney.
Hancock	H. O. Miller, Pughtown.
Hardy	L. S. Halterman, Lost River.
Harrison	A. P. Morrison, Salem.
Jackson	P. H. Rardin, Clarksburg.
Jefferson	J. Grantham, Kearneysville.
Kanawha	N. W. Cavender, Charleston.
Lewis	M. L. B. Linger, Weston.
Lincoln	Henry F. White, Hamlin.
Logan	L. E. Browning, Logan.
Marion	W. M. Kennedy, Fairmont.
Marshall	H. W. McDowell, Glen Easton.
Mason	C. D. Ball, Letart.
Mercer	J. F. Holroyd, Athens.
Mineral	R. W. Thrush, Keyser.
Mingo	Hi Maynard, Myrtle.
Monongalia	H. E. Brookover, Morgantown.
Monroe	W. R. Fullen, Salt Sulphur Springs.
Morgan	A. D. H. Michael, Berkeley Springs.
McDowell	W. C. Cook, Welch.
Nicholas	H. Groves, Summersville.
Ohio	J. H. Lazear, Fulton Station, Wheeling.
Pendleton	Flick Warner, Franklin.
Pleasants	J. H. Fleming, Adlai.
Pocahontas	B. B. Williams, Cass.
Preston	W. Fortney, Independence.
Putnam	J. C. Fish, Red House.
Raleigh	U. S. Dickens, Beckley.
Randolph	W. J. Long, Valley Bend.
Ritchie	R. B. Cokeley, Harrisville.
Roane	A. L. Thrash, Reedy.
Summers	W. T. Ball, Hinton.
Taylor	Dellet Newlon, Grafton.
Tucker	C. R. Parsons, Porterwood.
Tyler	A. L. Gregg, Middlebourne.
Upshur	J. H. Ashworth, Buckhannon.
Wayne	O. J. Rife, Wayne.
Webster	G. R. Morton, Lanes Bottom.
Wetzel	Chas. Kislig, New Martinsville.
Wirt	Ross Wilson, Hartley.
Wood	E. B. Sims, Williamstown.
Wyoming	C. H. Cook, Pineville.
WISCONSIN.	
Adams	Maybelle Douglas, Plainville.
Ashland	W. P. Hagman, Mellen.
Barron	L. S. Cheney, Barron.
WISCONSIN—contd.	
Bayfield	Jessie N. Smith, Washburn.
Brown	J. F. Novitski, Green Bay.
Buffalo	H. J. Niehaus, Alma.
Burnett	Clara Jacobson, Grantsburg.
Calumet	L. P. Fox, Chilton.
Chippewa	Bertha Trudelle, Chippewa Falls.
Clark	Elizabeth Kennedy, Neillsville.
Columbia	C. W. Smith, Portage.
Crawford	George Burton, Eastman.
Dane, 1st district	S. Ames, Stoughton.
Dane, 2d district	Genie A. Laws, Mazomanie.
Dodge	John Kelley, Juneau.
Door	G. A. Bassford, Sturgeon Bay.
Douglas	Olga Larson, Superior.
Dunn	J. W. Klingman, Menomonie.
Eau Claire	Theresa A. Leinenkugel, Eau Claire.
Florence	L. A. Jones, Florence.
Fond du Lac	Julia Ryder, Fond du Lac.
Forest	H. A. Kamm, Crandon.
Grant	J. C. Brockert, Lancaster.
Green	J. Carl Penn, Monroe.
Green Lake	George V. Kelley, Princeton.
Iowa	Jesse A. VanNatta, Dodgeville.
Iron	Charles D. Lennon, Hurley.
Jackson	Oren D. Stiehl, Black River Falls.
Jefferson	A. J. Thorne, Jefferson.
Juneau	Myrta D. Cuenot, Mauston.
Kenosha	J. J. Kerwin, Silver Lake.
Kewannee	J. E. Sazama, Kewannee.
La Crosse	B. F. Oltman, West Salem.
Lafayette	W. G. Mase, Darlington.
Langlade	A. M. Arveson, Antigo.
Lincoln	J. H. Hamlin, Merrill.
Manitowoc	C. W. Meisnest, Manitowoc.
Marathon	Wenzel Pivernetz, Wausau.
Marinette	R. C. Ramsay, Peshtigo.
Marquette	Duncan H. Reid, Endeavor.
Milwaukee	Hugo A. Pauly, Milwaukee.
Monroe	M. M. Haney, Sparta.
Oconto	Ellen B. McDonald, Oconto.
Oneida	F. A. Lowell, Rhinelander.
Outagamie	A. G. Meating, Appleton.
Ozaukee	R. F. Beger, Fredonia.
Pepin	Cynthia Carlisle, Durand.
Pierce	O. F. Mattson, Ellsworth.
Polk	Martin Stenerson, Balsam Lake.
Portage	Frances C. Bannach, Custer.
Price	May McNely, Phillips.
Racine	G. J. Zimmerman, Union Grove.
Richland	Jacob B. Logue, Richland Center.
Rock	O. D. Antisdel, Janesville.
Rusk	Oliver E. Rice, Ladysmith.
St. Croix	H. A. Aune, Baldwin.
Sauk	Geo. W. Davies, N. Freedom.
Sawyer	Effie M. Harrington, Hayward.
Shawano	L. D. Roberts, Shawano.
Sheboygan	H. C. Dornbush, Elkhart Lake.
Taylor	G. B. Smith, Medford.
Trempealeau	Dan P. Gibson, Whitehall.
Vernon	H. L. Gardner, Viroqua.
Vilas	Grant Cook, Eagle River.
Walworth	Helen Martin, Elkhorn.
Washburn	Neva J. Adams, Spooner.
Washington	Geo. T. Carlin, West Bend.

V.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS—Continued.

County.	Superintendent.	County.	Superintendent.
WISCONSIN—contd.		WYOMING—contd.	
Waukesha	G. B. Rhoads, Waukesha.	Crook	Miss N. Truax, Sundance.
Waupaca	W. E. Switzer, Clintonville.	Fremont	Mrs. Ella Farthing, Lander.
Waushara	Edward Coates, Wautoma.	Johnson	Mrs. M. B. Sinsel, Buffalo.
		Laramie	Mrs. M. E. Hefferon, Cheyenne.
Winnebago	H. B. Patch, Oshkosh.		
Wood	George Varney, Vesper.	Natrona	May Hamilton, Casper.
WYOMING.		Park	Miss J. Hitchcock, Cody.
Albany	Mrs. N. Artisee Erickson, Laramie.	Sheridan	Miss E. K. O. Clark, Sheridan.
		Sweetwater	Miss M. R. Baird, Rock Springs.
Big Horn	A. F. Fillerup, Lovell.		
Converse	Maud Dawes, Douglas.	Uinta	Miss Iva Irish, Evanston.
Carbon	Miss F. B. Smith, Rawlins.	Weston	Miss O. Carpenter, Upton.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
ALABAMA.		
Birmingham	Birmingham College	Rev. John D. Simpson, D. D.
Athens	Athens Female College	Miss Mary N. Moore.
Auburn	Alabama Polytechnic Institute	Charles C. Thach, LL. D.
Eastlake	Howard College	Rev. James M. Shelburne, D. D.
Greensboro	Southern University	Andrew Sledd, LL. D.
Marion	Judson College	Rev. Robert G. Patrick, D. D.
Montgomery	Woman's College of Alabama	William E. Martin, Ph. D.
St. Bernard	St. Bernard College	Rev. Bernard Menges, O. S. B.
Spring Hill	Spring Hill College	Rev. Francis X. Twellmeyer, S. J.
Talladega	Alabama Synodical College for Women	Rev. T. Peyton Walton.
Tuscaloosa	Central Female College	Rev. B. F. Giles, A. M.
Do	Tuscaloosa Female College	R. J. Holston, A. M.
University	University of Alabama	George H. Denny, LL. D.
ARIZONA.		
Tucson	University of Arizona	Arthur H. Wilde, Ph. D.
ARKANSAS.		
Arkadelphia	Henderson-Brown College	Geo. H. Crowell.
Do	Ouachita College	Robert G. Bowers, D. D.
Batesville	Arkansas College	Eugene R. Long, Ph. D.
Clarksville	Arkansas Cumberland College	E. E. Morris, D. D.
Conway	Central College	John W. Conger.
Do	Hendrix College	Rev. A. C. Millar, D. D.
Fayetteville	University of Arkansas	J. H. Reynolds, A. M., acting.
Little Rock	Philander Smith College (colored)	Rev. J. M. Cox, D. D.
CALIFORNIA.		
Berkeley	University of California	Benj. Ide Wheeler, LL. D.
Claremont	Pomona College	James A. Blaisdell, M. A.
Los Angeles	Occidental College	John W. Baer, LL. D.
Do	St. Vincents College	Rev. J. S. Glass, C. M., D. D.
Do	University of Southern California	Rev. George F. Bovard, LL. D.
Mills College	Mills College	Luella Clay Carson, LL. D.
Oakland	St. Mary's College	Rev. Brother Fabrician, F. S. C.
Pasadena	Throop Polytechnic Institute	James A. B. Scherer, LL. D.
San Francisco	St. Ignatius University	Rev. A. F. Trivelli, S. J.
San Jose	College of the Pacific	Wm. W. Guth, Ph. D.
Santa Clara	University of Santa Clara	Rev. James P. Morrissey, S. J.
Stanford University	Leland Stanford Junior University	David Starr Jordan, LL. D.
Whittier	Whittier College	Thomas Newlin, Ph. M.
COLORADO.		
Boulder	University of Colorado	James H. Baker, LL. D.
Colorado Springs	Colorado College	Rev. W. F. Slocum, LL. D.
Denver	College of the Sacred Heart	Rev. J. J. Brown, S. J.
Fort Collins	Colorado Agricultural College	Chas. A. Lory, M. S.
Golden	State School of Mines	Victor C. Alderson, Sc. D.
Greeley	State Teachers College of Colorado	Zachariah X. Snyder.
Montclaire	Colorado Woman's College	J. P. Treat, A. M.
University Park	University of Denver	Rev. Henry A. Buchtel, LL. D., chancellor.
Westminster	Westminster University	Salem G. Pattison, M. A.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
CONNECTICUT.		
Hartford	Trinity College	Flavel S. Luther, LL. D.
Middletown	Wesleyan University	Rev. W. A. Shanklin, LL. D.
New Haven	Yale University	Arthur T. Hadley, LL. D.
Storrs	Connecticut Agricultural College	C. H. Beach, B. S.
DELAWARE.		
Newark	Delaware College	Geo. A. Harter, Ph. D.
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.		
Washington	Catholic University of America	Rev. Thomas J. Shahan, S. T. D., rector.
Do	Gallaudet College	Percival Hall, M. A.
Do	Georgetown University	Rev. Alphonsus J. Donlon, S. J.
Do	George Washington University	Charles H. Stockton, LL. D.
Do	Howard University (colored)	Rev. S. M. Newman, D. D.
Do	St. John's College	Brother F. Andrew, F. S. C.
Do	Trinity College	Sister Catherine Aloysius, S. N. D.
FLORIDA.		
Deland	John B. Stetson University	Lincoln Hulley, LL. D.
Gainesville	University of Florida	Albert A. Murphree, LL. D.
Sutherland	Southern College	W. L. Clifton, A. B.
Tallahassee	Florida State College for Women	Edward Conradi, Ph. D.
Winter Park	Rollins College	Rev. Wm. F. Blackman, LL. D.
GEORGIA.		
Athens	University of Georgia	David C. Barrow, LL. D., chancellor.
Atlanta	Atlanta Baptist College (colored)	John Hope, A. M.
Do	Atlanta University (colored)	Edward T. Ware, A. B.
Do	Georgia School of Technology	Kenneth G. Matheson, LL. D.
Do	Morris Brown College (colored)	Rev. William A. Fountain, S. T. B.
College Park	Cox College	W. S. Cox.
Cuthbert	Andrew College	J. W. Malone, A. M.
Dahlonega	North Georgia Agricultural College	G. R. Glenn, LL. D.
Decatur	Agnes Scott College	Rev. F. H. Gaines, LL. D.
Demorest	Piedmont College	Rev. Frank E. Jenkins, D. D.
Forsyth	Bessie Tift College	C. H. S. Jackson, LL. D.
Gainesville	Brenau College	H. J. Pearce, Ph. D.
Lagrange	Lagrange Female College	Rufus W. Smith, A. M.
Do	Southern Female College	James E. Ricketson.
Macon	Mercer University	Samuel Y. Jameson, LL. D.
Do	Wesleyan Female College	Rev. C. R. Jenkins, D. D.
Oxford	Emory College	Rev. J. E. Dickey, D. D.
Rome	Shorter College	A. W. Van Hoose.
South Atlanta	Clark University (colored)	W. W. Foster.
HAWAII.		
Honolulu	College of Hawaii	John W. Gilmore, M. S. A.
IDAHO.		
Caldwell	College of Idaho	Rev. William J. Boone, D. D.
Moscow	University of Idaho	James A. MacLean, LL. D.
ILLINOIS.		
Abingdon	Hedding College	Wm. P. MacVey.
Aledo	William and Vashti College	Rev. Frank C. English, D. D.
Bloomington	Illinois Wesleyan University	Rev. Theodore Kemp, D. D.
Bourbonnais	St. Viateur's College	Rev. John P. O'Mahoney, C. S. V.
Carlinville	Blackburn College	Rev. Wm. M. Hudson, D. D.
Carthage	Carthage College	Rev. H. D. Hoover, Ph. D.
Chicago	Armour Institute of Technology	Rev. Frank W. Gunsaulus, LL. D.
Do	Lewis Institute	George N. Carman, A. M., director.
Do	Loyola University	
Do	St. Stanislaus College	Rev. L. J. Zapala, C. R., M. A.
Do	University of Chicago	Harry Pratt Judson, LL. D.
Decatur	James Millikin University	A. R. Taylor, LL. D.
Eureka	Eureka College	Chas. E. Underwood.
Evanston	Northwestern University	Abram W. Harris, LL. D.
Ewing	Ewing College	J. A. Leavitt.
Galesburg	Knox College	Rev. Thomas McClelland, D. D.
Do	Lombard College	Huber W. Hurt, A. M.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
ILLINOIS—continued.		
Greenville	Greenville College	Eldon Grant Burritt, A. M.
Jacksonville	Illinois College	Charles H. Rammelkamp, Ph. D.
Do	Illinois Woman's College	Rev. Joseph R. Harker, Ph. D.
Knoxville	St. Mary's School	Rev.C.W.Leffingwell,D. D.,rector,
Lake Forest	Lake Forest College	John S. Nollen, LL. D.
Lebanon	McKendree College	Rev. John F. Harmon, D. D.
Lincoln	Lincoln College	J. H. McMurray, Ph. D.
Monmouth	Monmouth College	Rev. Thos. H. McMichael, D. D.
Mount Carroll	Frances Shimer School	Wm. P. McKee.
Naperville	Northwestern College	Rev. L.H. Seager, D. D.
Quincy	St. Francis Solanus College	Rev. Fortunatus Hausser, O. F. M.
Rockford	Rockford College	Julia H. Gulliver, Ph. D.
Rock Island	Augustana College	Gustav A. Andreen, Ph. D.
Upper Alton	Shurtleff College	George M. Potter.
Urbana	University of Illinois	Edmund J. James, LL. D.
Wheaton	Wheaton College	Rev. C. A. Blanchard, D. D.
INDIANA		
Bloomington	Indiana University	William L. Bryan, LL. D.
Collegeville	St. Joseph's College	Rev. Augustine Seifert, C. PP. S.
Crawfordsville	Wabash College	Rev. Geo. Lewes Mackintosh,D. D.
Earlham	Earlham College	Robert L. Kelly, LL. D.
Fort Wayne	Concordia College	Rev. Martin Luecke.
Franklin	Franklin College	Elijah A. Hanley, D. D.
Goshen	Goshen College	Noah E. Byers, A. M.
Greencastle	De Pauw University	George R. Grose.
Hanover	Hanover College	William A. Millis, LL. D.
Indianapolis	Butler College	Thomas C. Howe, Ph. D.
Lafayette	Purdue University	W. E. Stone, LL. D.
Merom	Union Christian College	Rev. Daniel A. Long, LL. D.
Moores Hill	Moores Hill College	Rev. Harry A. King, S. T. B.
Notre Dame	St. Mary's College and Academy	Mother M. Pauline.
Do	University of Notre Dame	Rev.John Cavanaugh,C.S.C.,D. D.
Oakland City	Oakland City College	Wm. P. Dearing.
St. Meinrad	St. Meinrad College	Rev. A. Schmitt, O. S. B.
Terre Haute	Rose Polytechnic Institute	Carl L. Mees, Ph. D.
Upland	Taylor University	Rev. Monroe Vayhinger, D. D.
Valparaiso	Valparaiso University	H. B. Brown.
Vincennes	Vincennes University	Horace Ellis, Ph. D.
IOWA.		
Ames	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Raymond A. Pearson, LL. D.
Cedar Falls	Iowa State Teachers College	Homer H. Seerley, LL. D.
Cedar Rapids	Coe College	Rev. J. A. Marquis, LL. D.
Charles City	Charles City College	
Clinton	Wartburg College	John Fritschel.
College Springs	Amity College	Robert A. McConagha.
Decorah	Luther College	Rev. C. K. Preus.
Des Moines	Des Moines College	John A. Earl, D. D.
Do	Drake University	Hill M. Bell, LL. D.
Dubuque	St. Joseph's College	Very Rev.DanielM.Gorman,LL.D.
Fairfield	Parsons College	Rev. W. E. Parsons, D. D.
Fayette	Upper Iowa University	Richard W. Cooper, Litt. D.
Grinnell	Grinnell College	J. H. T. Main, LL. D.
Hopkinton	Lenox College	Rev. E. E. Reed, D. D.
Indianola	Simpson College	Francis L. Strickland, Ph. D.
Iowa City	State University of Iowa	John G. Bowman, M. A.
Iowa Falls	Ellsworth College	Ido F. Meyer, A. M.
Lamoni	Graceland College	J. A. Gunsolley, B. S.
Mount Pleasant	Iowa Wesleyan College	Rev. Edwin A. Schell, D. D.
Mount Vernon	Cornell College	James E. Harlan, LL. D.
Oskaloosa	Penn College	David M. Edwards, Ph. D.
Pella	Central University of Iowa	John L. Beyl, Ph. D.
Sioux City	Morningside College	Rev. Alfred E. Craig.
Storm Lake	Buena Vista College	Rev. James P. Linn.
Tabor	Tabor College	Rev. George E. Wood, D. D.
Toledo	Leander Clark College	Rev. Franklin E. Brooke, D. D.
University Park	Central Holiness University	Rev. George A. McLaughlin, D. D.
KANSAS.		
Atchison	Midland College	Rev. R. B. Peery, D. D.
Do	St. Benedict's College	Rt. Rev. I. Wolf, O. S. B., D. D.
Baldwin	Baker University	Rev. Wilbur N. Mason, D. D.
Emporia	College of Emporia	Rev. Henry Coe Culbertson, D. D.
Highland	Highland College	Rev. Wm. C. T. Adams, LL. D.
Holton	Campbell College	T. D. Crites.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
KANSAS—continued.		
Kansas City	Kansas City University	Rev. D. S. Stephens, D. D., chancellor.
Lawrence	University of Kansas	Frank Strong, LL. D.
Lindsborg	Bethany College	Rev. Ernst F. Pihlblad, D. D.
McPherson	McPherson College	John A. Clement, Ph. D.
Manhattan	Kansas State Agricultural College	Henry J. Waters, B. S. A.
Ottawa	Ottawa University	S. E. Price.
St. Marys	St. Mary's College	Rev. Aloysius A. Breen, S. J.
Salina	Kansas Wesleyan University	R. P. Smith.
Sterling	Cooper College	Rev. R. T. Campbell, D. D.
Topeka	Washburn College	Rev. Frank K. Sanders, D. D.
Wichita	Fairmount College	Rev. Henry E. Thayer, D. D.
Do	Friends University	Edmund Stanley, A. M.
Winfield	Southwestern College	Rev. F. E. Mossman, D. D.
KENTUCKY.		
Berea	Berea College	Rev. Wm. G. Frost, Ph. D.
Bowling Green	Ogden College	W. M. Pearce.
Danville	Caldwell College	John C. Acheson, A. M.
Do	Central University of Kentucky	Frederick W. Hinitt, Ph. D.
Georgetown	Georgetown College	Arthur Yager, LL. D.
Glasgow	Liberty College for Women	M. W. Hatton, Ph. D.
Harrodsburg	Beaumont College	Thomas Smith, A. M.
Hopkinsville	Bethel Female College	Harry G. Brownell, B. S.
Do	McLean College	A. C. Kuykendall, A. B.
Lexington	Hamilton College for Women	H. G. Shearin, Ph. D.
Do	Sayre College	Rev. J. M. Spencer.
Do	State University of Kentucky	Henry S. Barker, LL. D.
Do	Transylvania University	Richard H. Crossfield, Ph. D.
Louisville	University of Louisville	John Patterson, LL. D.
Lyndon	Kentucky Military Institute	C. W. Fowler, C. E.
Owensboro	Owensboro Female College	J. Byron La Rue.
Russellville	Bethel College	Floran D. Perkins, A. B.
Do	Logan Female College	J. W. Repass, D. D.
St. Mary	St. Mary's College	Rev. Michael Jaglowicz, C. R.
Versailles	Margaret College	Rev. James M. Maxon, M. A.
Winchester	Kentucky Wesleyan College	Rev. J. L. Clark.
LOUISIANA.		
Baton Rouge	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Thomas D. Boyd, LL. D.
Clinton	Silliman Collegiate Institute	Rev. H. H. Brownlee.
Convent	Jefferson College	Rev. R. H. Smith, S. M.
Mansfield	Mansfield Female College	R. E. Bobbitt.
New Orleans	H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College	Brandt V. B. Dixon, LL. D.
Do	Leland University (colored)	
Do	Loyola University	Rev. Albert Biever, S. J.
Do	New Orleans University (colored)	Rev. John Wier, D. D.
Do	Tulane University of Louisiana	Robert Sharp, Ph. D., acting.
MAINE.		
Brunswick	Bowdoin College	Rev. Wm. De Witt Hyde, LL. D.
Lewiston	Bates College	Rev. G. C. Chase, LL. D.
Orono	University of Maine	Robert J. Aley, LL. D.
Van Buren	Van Buren College (St. Mary's)	Rev. Matthew Thouvenin, S. M.
Waterville	Colby College	Arthur J. Roberts, A. M.
MARYLAND.		
Annapolis	St. John's College	Thomas Fell, LL. D.
Do	United States Naval Academy	Capt. John H. Gibbons, superintendent.
Baltimore	Goucher College	James B. Van Meter, acting.
Do	Johns Hopkins University	Ira Remsen, LL. D.
Do	Loyola College	Rev. Wm. J. Ennis, S. J.
Do	Morgan College (colored)	
Do	Mount St. Joseph's College	Brother Norbert, director.
Chestertown	Washington College	James W. Cain, LL. D.
College Park	Maryland Agricultural College	
Ellicott City	Rock Hill College	Rev. Brother Maurice-Josephus, F. S. C.
Emmitsburg	Mount St. Mary's College	Rev. Bernard J. Bradley.
Frederick	Woman's College	J. H. Apple, A. M.
Lutherville	Maryland College for Women	Rev. Chas. W. Gallagher, D. D.
New Windsor	New Windsor College	Rev. James Fraser, LL. D.
Westminster	Western Maryland College	Rev. Thomas H. Lewis, LL. D.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
MASSACHUSETTS.		
Amherst	Amherst College	Alexander Meiklejohn, Ph. D.
Do	Massachusetts Agricultural College	K. L. Butterfield, A. M.
Boston	Boston College	Rev. Thomas I. Gasson, S. J.
Do	Boston University	Rev. Lemuel H. Murlin, D. D.
Do	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Richard C. Maclaurin, LL. D.
Do	Simmons College	Henry Lefavour, LL. D.
Cambridge	Harvard University	Abbott Lawrence Lowell, LL. D.
Do	Radcliffe College	Le Baron R. Briggs, LL. D.
Northampton	Smith College	Rev. Marion Le Roy Burton, LL. D.
Norton	Wheaton College	Rev. Samuel V. Cole, D. D.
South Hadley	Mount Holyoke College	Mary E. Woolley, LL. D.
Tufts College	Tufts College	Wm. L. Hooper, Ph. D., acting.
Wellesley	Wellesley College	Ellen F. Pendleton, M. A.
Williamstown	Williams College	Harry A. Garfield, LL. D.
Worcester	Clark University	G. Stanley Hall, LL. D.
Do	Clark College	Edmund Clark Sanford, Ph. D.
Do	College of the Holy Cross	Rev. Joseph N. Dinand, S. J.
Do	Worcester Polytechnic Institute	Levi L. Conant.
MICHIGAN.		
Adrian	Adrian College	Rev. B. W. Anthony, LL. D.
Albion	Albion College	Samuel Dickie, LL. D.
Alma	Alma College	Thomas G. Blaisdell, Ph. D.
Ann Arbor	University of Michigan	Harry B. Hutchins, LL. D.
Detroit	University of Detroit	Rev. Wm. F. Dooley.
East Lansing	Michigan Agricultural College	J. L. Snyder, Ph. D.
Hillsdale	Hillsdale College	Joseph W. Mauck, LL. D.
Holland	Hope College	Rev. Ame Vennema, D. D.
Houghton	Michigan College of Mines	F. W. McNair, Sc. D.
Kalamazoo	Kalamazoo College	Herbert L. Stetson.
Olivet	Olivet College	E. G. Lancaster, Ph. D.
MINNESOTA.		
Albert Lea	Albert Lea College	Rev. John T. Bergen, D. D.
Collegeville	St. John's University	Rev. Peter Engel, O. S. B., Ph. D.
Minneapolis	Augsburg Seminary	George Sverdrup, jr., M. A.
Do	University of Minnesota	George E. Vincent, LL. D.
Northfield	Carleton College	Donald J. Cowling, Ph. D.
Do	St. Olaf College	Rev. John N. Kildahl, D. D.
St. Paul	Hamline University	Rev. Samuel F. Kerfoot, D. D.
Do	Macalester College	Thomas M. Hodgman, LL. D.
St. Peter	Gustavus Adolphus College	Rev. Jacob P. Uhler, Ph. D., acting.
MISSISSIPPI.		
Agricultural College	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	G. R. Hightower.
Blue Mountain	Blue Mountain Female College	W. J. Lowrey, A. M.
Brookhaven	Whitworth Female College	Rev. I. W. Cooper, D. D.
Clinton	Hillman College	Rev. W. T. Lowrey, D. D.
Do	Mississippi College	John W. Provine, LL. D.
Columbus	Industrial Institute and College	Henry L. Whitfield.
French Camp	Central Mississippi Institute	J. A. Sanderson, principal.
Grenada	Grenada College	Rev. J. R. Countiss.
Holly Springs	Rust University (colored)	Rev. James T. Docking.
Jackson	Bellhaven College for Young Ladies	
Do	Millsaps College	A. F. Watkins, A. B.
Meridian	Meridian Male College	Malcomb A. Beeson, B. S.
Do	Meridian Woman's College	J. W. Beeson, A. M.
Pontotoc	Chickasaw Female College	
Port Gibson	Port Gibson Female College	Rev. C. M. Chapman, A. M.
University	University of Mississippi	A. A. Kincannon, LL. D., chancellor.
MISSOURI.		
Albany	Palmer College	E. A. Watkins.
Cameron	Missouri Wesleyan College	Rev. H. R. De Bra, D. D.
Canton	Christian University	Carl Johann, LL. D.
Columbia	Christian College	Mrs. Luella W. St. Claire.
Do	Stephens College	James M. Wood.
Do	University of Missouri	Albert Ross Hill, LL. D.
Fayette	Central College	William A. Webb, Litt. D.
Do	Howard Payne College	Rev. Henry E. Stout.
Fulton	Westminster College	Rev. Charles D. Boving, D. D.
Do	Synodical Female College	Laurence I. MacQueen, A. M.
Glasgow	Pritchett College	Uriel S. Hall, A. B.
Lexington	Central Female College	Z. M. Williams, A. M.
Do	Lexington College for Young Women	C. Lewis Fowler, A. M.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
MISSOURI—continued.		
Liberty	Liberty Ladies College	H. H. Savage, A. M.
Do.	William Jewell College	Rev. J. P. Greene, LL. D.
Marshall	Missouri Valley College	Rev. Wm. H. Black, LL. D.
Mexico	Hardin College	J. W. Million, A. M.
Morrisville	Scarritt-Morrisville College	Rev. Louis C. Perry, Ph. D.
Nevada	Cottey College	Mrs. V. A. C. Stockard.
Parkville	Park College	L. M. McAfee, LL. D.
St. Charles	Lindenwood College for Women	Rev. George F. Ayers, Ph. D.
St. Louis	Christian Brothers College	Brother Lawrence Sixtus.
Do.	Forest Park University	Mrs. Anna Snead Cairns.
Do.	St. Louis University	Rev. Alexander J. Burrowes, S. J.
Do.	Washington University	David F. Houston, LL. D., chancellor.
Springfield	Drury College	Rev. Joseph H. George, D. D.
Tarkio	Tarkio College	Rev. J. A. Thompson, D. D.
Warrenton	Central Wesleyan College	Rev. Otto E. Kriege, D. D.
MONTANA.		
Bozeman	Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	James M. Hamilton, M. S.
Butte	Montana State School of Mines	Charles H. Bowman, M. S.
Missoula	University of Montana	Edwin B. Craighead, LL. D.
NEBRASKA.		
Bellevue	Bellevue College	Stephen W. Stookey, LL. D.
Bethany	Cotner University	William Oeschger, B. D., chancellor.
College View	Union College	Frederick Griggs.
Crete	Doane College	
Grand Island	Grand Island College	L. A. Garrison.
Hastings	Hastings College	R. B. Crone.
Lincoln	University of Nebraska	Samuel Avery, LL. D., chancellor.
Omaha	Creighton University	Rev. Eugene A. Magevney, S. J.
Do.	University of Omaha	Daniel E. Jenkins, Ph. D.
University Place	Nebraska Wesleyan University	Clark A. Fulmer, M. A., chancellor.
York	York College	Rev. Wm. E. Schell, D. D.
NEVADA.		
Reno	State University of Nevada	Rev. J. E. Stubbs, LL. D.
NEW HAMPSHIRE.		
Durham	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Edward T. Fairchild.
Hanover	Dartmouth College	E. F. Nichols, LL. D.
Manchester	St. Anselm's College	Rt. Rev. Ernest Helmstetter, O. S. B.
NEW JERSEY.		
Convent Station	College of Saint Elizabeth	Sister M. Pauline Kelligher.
Hoboken	Stevens Institute of Technology	Alexander C. Humphreys, LL. D.
Jersey City	St. Peter's College	Rev. Joseph Mulry, S. J.
Kenilworth	Upsala College	Peter Froeberg, B. D.
New Brunswick	Rutgers College	Rev. Wm. H. S. Demarest, LL. D.
Princeton	Princeton University	John Grier Hibben, LL. D.
South Orange	Seton Hall College	Very Rev. Jas. F. Mooney, LL. D.
NEW MEXICO.		
Albuquerque	University of New Mexico	Rev. David R. Boyd.
Socorro	New Mexico School of Mines	Emmet A. Drake, A. M.
State College	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	W. E. Garrison, Ph. D.
NEW YORK.		
Alfred	Alfred University	Rev. B. C. Davis, D. D.
Annandale	St. Stephen's College	Rev. Wm. C. Rodgers, D. D.
Aurora	Wells College	Robt. L. Zabriskie, acting.
Brooklyn	Adelphi College	S. Parks Cadman, D. D.
Do.	Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn	F. W. Atkinson, Ph. D.
Do.	St. Francis College	Brother Stanislaus, O. S. F.
Do.	St. John's College	Very Rev. John W. Moore, C. M.
Buffalo	Canisius College	Rev. Augustine A. Miller, S. J.
Canton	St. Lawrence University	Rev. Almon Gunnison, LL. D.
Clinton	Hamilton College	Rev. M. W. Stryker, LL. D.
Elmira	Elmira College	Rev. A. C. Mackenzie, LL. D.
Geneva	Hobart College	W. P. Durfee, Ph. D., acting.
Hamilton	Colgate University	Elmer B. Bryan, LL. D.

VI.—University and College Presidents—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
NEW YORK—continued.		
Ithaca	Cornell University	J. G. Schurman, LL. D.
Keuka Park	Keuka College	Rev. Joseph A. Serena.
New Rochelle	College of New Rochelle	Rev. M. C. O'Farrell.
New York	Barnard College	Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Ph. D., dean.
Do	College of the City of New York	John H. Finley, LL. D.
Do	Columbia University	Nicholas M. Butler, LL. D.
Do	Fordham University	Rev. Thomas J. McCluskey, S. J.
Do	Manhattan College	Rev. Brother Jerome, F. S. C.
Do	New York University	Elmer Ellsworth Brown, LL. D., chancellor.
Do	Normal College of the City of New York	George S. Davis, LL. D.
Do	Teachers College	James E. Russell, LL. D., dean.
Niagara University	Niagara University	Rev. Drennan, C. M.
Potsdam	Clarkson School of Technology	John P. Brooks, M. E. director.
Poughkeepsie	Vassar College	Rev. J. M. Taylor, LL. D.
Rochester	University of Rochester	Rev. Rush Rhees, LL. D.
St. Bonaventure	St. Bonaventure's College	Rev. Fidelis J. Reynolds, O. F. M.
Schenectady	Union University	Rev. Charles A. Richmond, D. D.
Syracuse	Syracuse University	Rev. J. R. Day, LL. D., chancellor.
Troy	Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute	Palmer C. Ricketts, C. E.
West Point	United States Military Academy	Col. Clarence P. Townsley, supt.
NORTH CAROLINA.		
Belmont	St. Mary's College	Rev. Leo Haid, O. S. B., D. D.
Chapel Hill	University of North Carolina	F. P. Venable, LL. D.
Charlotte	Biddle University (colored)	Rev. H. L. McCrorey, D. D.
Do	Elizabeth College	Rev. C. B. King, D. D.
Davidson	Davidson College	W. J. Martin, A. M.
Durham	Trinity College	Wm. P. Few, Ph. D.
Elon College	Elon College	W. A. Harper, M. A.
Greensboro	Greensboro Female College	Mrs. Lucy H. Robertson.
Guilford College	Guilford College	L. Lyndon Hobbs, LL. D.
Hickory	Lenoir College	Rev. R. L. Fritz, A. M.
Newton	Catawba College	John F. Buchheit, A. M.
Oxford	Oxford College	F. P. Hobgood, A. M.
Raleigh	Meredith College	Rev. R. T. Vann, D. D.
Do	Peace Institute	George J. Ramsey.
Do	St. Mary's School	Rev. George W. Lay.
Do	Shaw University (colored)	Chas. F. Meserve, LL. D.
Red Springs	Southern Presbyterian College	Rev. C. G. Vardell, D. D.
Salem	Salem Female Academy and College	Rev. Howard E. Rondthaler, A. M.
Salisbury	Livingstone College (colored)	Rev. William H. Goler, LL. D.
Wake Forest	Wake Forest College	Wm. L. Poteat, LL. D.
Weaverville	Weaverville College	O. S. Dean.
West Raleigh	North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Daniel H. Hill, LL. D.
NORTH DAKOTA.		
Agricultural College	North Dakota Agricultural College	J. H. Worst, LL. D.
Fargo	Fargo College	Charles C. Creegan.
Grand Forks	Wesley College	Rev. Edward P. Robertson, D. D.
Jamestown	Jamestown College	Rev. Barend H. Kroeze, D. D.
University	University of North Dakota	Frank L. McVey, LL. D.
OHIO.		
Ada	Ohio Northern University	Rev. Albert E. Smith, D. D.
Akron	Buchtel College	
Alliance	Mount Union-Scio College	Rev. W. H. McMaster, D. D.
Ashland	Ashland College	W. D. Furry, Ph. D.
Athens	Ohio University	Alston Ellis, LL. D.
Berea	Baldwin University	Rev. Glezen A. Reeder, D. D.
Do	German Wallace College	Arthur L. Breslich, Ph. D., acting.
Cedarville	Cedarville College	Rev. David McKinney, LL. D.
Cincinnati	St. Xavier College	Rev. Francis Heiermann, S. J.
Do	University of Cincinnati	Chas. W. Dabney, LL. D.
Cleveland	Case School of Applied Science	Charles S. Howe, Ph. D.
Do	St. Ignatius College	Rev. John B. Furay, S. J.
Do	Western Reserve University	Rev. C. F. Thwing, LL. D.
Columbus	Capital University	Rev. Otto Mees.
Do	Ohio State University	W. O. Thompson, LL. D.
Dayton	St. Mary's Institute	Rev. Bernard P. O'Reilly, S. M.
Defiance	Defiance College	P. W. McReynolds, A. M..
Delaware	Ohio Wesleyan University	Rev. Herbert Welch, LL. D.
Findlay	Findlay College	Rev. C. I. Brown, D. D.
Gambier	Kenyon College	Rev. Wm. F. Peirce, L. H. D.
Granville	Denison University	Rev. Emory W. Hunt, LL. D.
Hiram	Hiram College	Miner Lee Bates, A. M.
Lebanon	Lebanon University	Wallace E. Miller.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
OHIO—continued.		
Marietta	Marietta College	
New Athens	Franklin College	E. M. Baxter.
New Concord	Muskingum College	Rev. J. K. Montgomery, D. D.
Oberlin	Oberlin College	Rev. Henry C. King, D. D.
Oxford	Miami University	R. M. Hughes, acting.
Do	Oxford College for Women	Jane Sherzer, Ph. D.
Do	Western College for Women	Mary A. Sawyer, acting.
Painesville	Lake Erie College	Miss Vivian Blanche Small.
Rio Grande	Rio Grande College	Simeon H. Bing.
Springfield	Wittenberg College	Rev. Charles G. Heckert, D. D.
Tiffin	Heidelberg University	Rev. Charles E. Miller, LL. D.
Toledo	St. John's University	Rev. Francis Heiermann, S. J.
Do	Toledo University	Charles A. Cockayne, Ph. D.
Westerville	Otterbein University	Walter G. Clippinger, B. D.
West Lafayette	West Lafayette College	Aubrey F. Hess.
Wilberforce	Wilberforce University (colored)	Wm. S. Scarborough, LL. D.
Wilmington	Wilmington College	Rev. Albert J. Brown, D. D.
Wooster	University of Wooster	Rev. Louis E. Holden, LL. D.
Yellowsprings	Antioch College	S. D. Fess, LL. D.
OKLAHOMA.		
Guthrie	Methodist University of Oklahoma	Rev. George H. Bradford, D. D.
Kingfisher	Kingfisher College	Rev. Calvin B. Moody, D. D.
Norman	University of Oklahoma	Stratton D. Brooks, Ph. D.
Stillwater	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	J. H. Connell, M. S.
Tulsa	Henry Kendall College	Rev. Frederick W. Hawley, D. D.
Wilburton	Oklahoma School of Mines and Metallurgy.	George E. Ladd.
OREGON.		
Albany	Albany College	H. M. Crooks, A. B.
Corvallis	Oregon Agricultural College	W. J. Kerr, Sc. D.
Dallas	Dallas College	Rev. Abraham A. Winter.
Eugene	University of Oregon	Prince L. Campbell, A. B.
Forest Grove	Pacific University	Wm. N. Ferrin, LL. D.
McMinnville	McMinnville College	Leonard W. Riley, D. D.
Newberg	Pacific College	Levi T. Pennington, A. B.
Philomath	Philomath College	M. R. Drury, A. M.
Portland	Reed College	Wm. T. Foster, A. M.
Salem	Willamette University	Rev. Fletcher Homan, D. D.
PENNSYLVANIA.		
Allentown	Allentown College for Women	Rev. Wm. F. Curtis.
Do	Muhlenberg College	Rev. J. W. A. Haas, D. D.
Annville	Lebanon Valley College	Rev. G. D. Gossard.
Beatty	St. Vincent College	Rev. Leander Schnerr, O. S. B.
Beaver	Beaver College	LeRoy Weller, A. M.
Beaver Falls	Geneva College	Rev. William H. George, A. M.
Bethlehem	Moravian College	Rev. Aug. Schultze, L. H. D.
Do	Moravian Seminary and College for Women	John H. Clewell, Ph. D.
Blairsville	Blairsville College	Miss Caroline D. Hays.
Bryn Mawr	Bryn Mawr College	Miss M. Carey Thomas, LL. D.
Carlisle	Dickinson College	Rev. Eugene A. Noble, LL. D.
Chambersburg	Wilson College	Anna J. McKeag, LL. D.
Chester	Pennsylvania Military College	Col. C. E. Hyatt, C. E.
Collegeville	Ursinus College	George L. Omwake, Pd. D.
Easton	Lafayette College	Rev. E. D. Warfield, LL. D.
Gettysburg	Pennsylvania College	William A. Granville, LL. D.
Greenville	Thiel College	Rev. C. Theodore Benze, D. D.
Grove City	Grove City College	Rev. I. C. Ketler, LL. D.
Haverford	Haverford College	Isaac Sharpless, LL. D.
Huntingdon	Juniata College	I. Harvey Brumbaugh, A. M.
Lancaster	Franklin and Marshall College	Rev. Henry H. Appel, D. D.
Lewisburg	Bucknell University	John H. Harris, LL. D.
Lincoln University	Lincoln University (colored)	Rev. John B. Rendall, D. D.
Meadville	Allegheny College	Rev. Wm. H. Crawford, LL. D.
Mechanicsburg	Irving Female College	E. E. Campbell, Ph. D.
Myerstown	Albright College	Rev. John Francis Dunlap, D. D.
New Wilmington	Westminister College	Rev. Robert M. Russell, LL. D.
Philadelphia	Dropsie College	Cyrus Adler, Ph. D.
Do	La Salle College	Brother D. Edward.
Do	Temple University	Russell H. Conwell, LL. D.
Do	University of Pennsylvania	Edgar Fahs Smith, LL. D., provost.
Pittsburgh	Carnegie Institute of Technology	Arthur A. Hamerschlag, LL. D.
Do	Pennsylvania College for Women	Rev. Henry D. Lindsay, D. D.
Do	Duquesne University of the Holy Ghost	Rev. M. A. Hehir, LL. D.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
PENNSYLVANIA—contd.		
Pittsburgh	University of Pittsburgh	Rev. S. B. McCormick, LL. D., chancellor.
Selinsgrove	Susquehanna University	Rev. Charles T. Aikens, D. D.
South Bethlehem	Lehigh University	Henry S. Drinker, LL. D.
State College	Pennsylvania State College	Edwin E. Sparks, LL. D.
Swarthmore	Swarthmore College	Joseph Swain, LL. D.
Villanova	Villanova College	Rev. L. A. Delurey, O. S. A., D. D.
Washington	Washington and Jefferson College	Rev. J. D. Moffat, LL. D.
Waynesburg	Waynesburg College	
PORTO RICO.		
San Juan	University of Porto Rico	Edward M. Bainter.
RHODE ISLAND.		
Kingston	Rhode Island State College	Howard Edwards, LL. D.
Providence	Brown University	Rev. W. H. P. Faunce, LL. D.
SOUTH CAROLINA.		
Charleston	College of Charleston	Harrison Randolph, LL. D.
Do	South Carolina Military Academy	Col. O. J. Bond, A. M., supt.
Clemson College	Clemson Agricultural College	Walter M. Riggs, B. S.
Clinton	Presbyterian College of South Carolina	Rev. Davison McDowell Douglass, D. D.
Columbia	Allen University (colored)	W. W. Beckett.
Do	Benedict College (colored)	Rev. B. W. Valentine, A. B.
Do	Columbia Female College	Rev. W. W. Daniel, D. D.
Do	College for Women	Miss Euphemia McClintock, A. B.
Do	University of South Carolina	S. C. Mitchell, LL. D.
Due West	Erskine College	James Strong Moffatt, D. D.
Do	Woman's College of Due West	Rev. R. L. Robinson.
Greenville	Chicora College	Rev. S. C. Byrd, D. D.
Do	Furman University	Rev. Edwin McNeil Poteat, LL. D.
Do	Greenville Female College	David M. Ramsay, D. D.
Greenwood	Lander Female College	Rev. John O. Willson, D. D.
Hartsville	Coker College for Women	Rev. Arthur J. Hall.
Newberry	Newberry College	Rev. John H. Harms, D. D.
Orangeburg	Claflin University (colored)	Rev. L. M. Dunton, LL. D.
Spartanburg	Converse College	Robert P. Pell, Litt. D.
Do	Wofford College	Henry N. Snyder, A. M.
SOUTH DAKOTA.		
Brookings	South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Robert L. Slagle, Ph. D.
Huron	Huron College	Rev. C. H. French, D. D.
Mitchell	Dakota Wesleyan University	Wm. G. Seaman, Ph. D.
Rapid City	State School of Mines	Cleophas C. O'Harra, Ph. D.
Redfield	Redfield College	Noah C. Hirschy, Ph. D.
Sioux Falls	Sioux Falls University	Rev. Edward F. Jorden, D. D.
Vermilion	University of South Dakota	Franklin B. Gault, Ph. D.
Yankton	Yankton College	Rev. H. K. Warren, LL. D.
TENNESSEE.		
Bristol	King College	Rev. Tilden Scherer.
Do	Sullins College	W. S. Neighbors.
Do	Washington College	James T. Cooter.
Chattanooga	Chattanooga University	Rev. J. H. Race, D. D.
Clarksville	Southwestern Presbyterian University	Wm. Dinwiddie, A. M., chancellor.
Cumberland Gap	Lincoln Memorial University	George A. Hubbell, Ph. D.
Gallatin	Howard College for Young Ladies	W. H. Buck, A. M.
Greeneville	Tusculum College	Rev. Chas. O. Gray, D. D.
Jackson	Memphis Conference Female Institute	Rev. A. B. Jones, LL. D.
Do	Union University	Rev. R. A. Kimbrough.
Jefferson City	Carson and Newman College	Jesse McGarity Burnett.
Knoxville	Knoxville College (colored)	Rev. R. W. McGranahan, D. D.
Do	University of Tennessee	Brown Ayres, LL. D.
Lebanon	Cumberland University	Rev. Winstead P. Bone, D. D.
McKenzie	Bethel College	N. J. Finney, A. M.
Maryville	Maryville College	Rev. Samuel T. Wilson, D. D
Memphis	Christian Brothers College	Rev. Brother Edward, F. S. C.
Milligan	Milligan College	
Murfreesboro	Tennessee College	Geo. J. Burnett, A. M.
Nashville	Belmont College for Young Women	Miss Hood.
Do	Boscobel College	Mrs. L. W. Everett.
Do	Fisk University (colored)	

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
TENNESSEE—continued.		
Nashville	Vanderbilt University	James H. Kirkland, LL. D., chancellor.
Do	Walden University (colored)	Rev. John A. Kumler, D. D.
Rogersville	Synodical Female College	Lawrence Rolfe, A. B.
Sewanee	University of the South	Wm. B. Hall, M. A., vice-chancellor.
Spencer	Burritt College	W. S. Graves, A. M.
TEXAS.		
Abilene	Simmons College	J. D. Sandefer, Ph. B.
Austin	University of Texas	Sidney E. Mezes, Ph. D.
Belton	Baylor Female College	J. C. Hardy, LL. D.
Bonham	Carlton College	Rev. C. T. Carlton, A. B.
Brownwood	Howard Payne College	John S. Humphreys, A. M.
College Station	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	Robert T. Milner.
Fort Worth	Polytechnic College	Rev. F. P. Culver, D. D.
Do	Texas Christian University	Rev. F. D. Kershner, A. M.
Georgetown	Southwestern University	Rev. C. M. Bishop, D. D.
Houston	Rice Institute	Edgar O. Lovett, Ph. D.
San Antonio	St. Louis College	Rev. Louis A. Tragesser, S. M.
Sherman	Austin College	Rev. Thomas S. Clyce, LL. D.
Do	North Texas Female College	Mrs. Lucy A. Kidd-Key.
South Houston	Asgard College	Rev. J. L. Dickens, LL. D.
Tehuacana	Westminster College	Rev. J. C. Williams, A. M.
Waco	Baylor University	Samuel P. Brooks, LL. D.
Do	Paul Quinn College (colored)	Rev. S. M. Burgan, LL. D.
Waxahachie	Trinity University	Samuel Lee Hornbeak, LL. D.
UTAH.		
Logan	Agricultural College of Utah	John A. Widtsoe, Ph. D.
Salt Lake City	University of Utah	Joseph T. Kingsbury, Sc. D.
VERMONT.		
Burlington	University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.	Rev. Guy P. Benton, LL. D.
Middlebury	Middlebury College	Rev. John Martin Thomas, D. D.
Northfield	Norwich University	Charles H. Spooner, LL. D.
VIRGINIA.		
Abingdon	Martha Washington College	S. D. Long.
Do	Stonewall Jackson Institute	Rev. Dabney R. Carson.
Ashland	Randolph-Macon College	Robert E. Blackwell, LL. D.
Blacksburg	Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College and Polytechnic Institute.	P. B. Barringer, LL. D.
Bridgewater	Bridgewater College	John S. Flory, Ph. D.
Bristol	Virginia Intermont College	J. T. Henderson, A. M.
Charlottesville	University of Virginia	E. A. Alderman, LL. D.
Danville	Roanoke Institute of Danville	John B. Brewer, A. M.
Emory	Emory and Henry College	Chas. C. Weaver, Ph. D.
Fredericksburg	Fredericksburg College	S. W. Somerville.
Hampden-Sidney	Hampden-Sydney College	Rev. Henry T. Graham, D. D.
Hollins	Hollins College	Miss Matty L. Cocke.
Lexington	Virginia Military Institute	Edward W. Nichols, supt.
Do	Washington and Lee University	Henry Louis Smith, LL. D.
Lynchburg	Randolph-Macon Woman's College	
Do	Virginia Christian College	S. T. Willis, Ph. D.
Manassas	Eastern College	Hervin U. Roop, LL. D.
Petersburg	Southern Female College	Arthur K. Davis, A. M.
Richmond	Richmond College	F. W. Boatwright, LL. D.
Do	Virginia Union University (colored)	Rev. George R. Hovey, D. D.
Do	Woman's College	Rev. James Nelson, LL. D.
Roanoke,	Virginia College	Miss Mattie P. Harris.
Salem	Roanoke College	Rev. John A. Morehead, D. D.
Sweet Briar	Sweet Briar College	Mary K. Benedict, Ph. D.
Williamsburg	College of William and Mary	L. G. Tyler, LL. D.
WASHINGTON.		
Pullman	State College of Washington	E. A. Bryan, LL. D.
Seattle	University of Washington	Thomas F. Kane, Ph. D.
Spokane	Gonzaga University	Rev. Louis Taelman, S. J.
Do	Spokane College	Henry O. Shurson.
Tacoma	University of Puget Sound	Julius Christian Zeller, D. C. L.
Do	Whitworth College	Rev. Donald D. McKay, D. D.
Walla Walla	Whitman College	Rev. S. B. L. Penrose, D. D.

VI.—UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of president.
WEST VIRGINIA.		
Barboursville	Morris Harvey College	D. W. Shaw, A. M.
Bethany	Bethany College	T. E. Cramblet, LL. D.
Buckhannon	West Virginia Wesleyan College	Carl G. Doney, LL. D.
Charlestown	Powhatan College	Stewart P. Hatton, LL. D.
Elkins	Davis and Elkins College	James E. Allen, A. B.
Lewisburg	Lewisburg Seminary	Rev. Richard C. Sommerville, D.D.
Morgantown	West Virginia University	Thomas E. Hodges, LL. D.
WISCONSIN.		
Appleton	Lawrence College	Rev. S. Plantz, LL. D.
Beloit	Beloit College	Rev. Edward D. Eaton, LL. D.
Madison	University of Wisconsin	Charles R. Van Hise, Ph. D.
Milton	Milton College	Rev. Wm. C. Daland, D. D.
Milwaukee	Concordia College	Rev. M. J. F Albrecht.
Do	Marquette University	Rev. Joseph Grimmelsman, S. J.
Do	Milwaukee-Downer College	Miss Ellen C. Sabin, A. M.
Plymouth	Mission House	Rev. E. A. Hofer, D. D.
Ripon	Ripon College	Silas Evans, D. D.
Watertown	Northwestern College	Rev. A. F. Ernst.
Waukesha	Carroll College	Rev. W. O. Carrier, D D.
WYOMING.		
Laramie	University of Wyoming	C. A. Duniway, Ph. D.

VII.—PROFESSORS OF PEDAGOGY AND HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS OF PEDAGOGY IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

Location.	University or college.	Name of professor or head of department.
Montgomery, Ala	Woman's College of Alabama	D. G. Sunne, Ph. D.
University, Ala	University of Alabama	James J. Doster.
Fayetteville, Ark	University of Arkansas	Wm. S. Johnson, Ph. D.
Berkeley, Cal	University of California	A. F. Lange, Ph. D.
Los Angeles, Cal	University of Southern California	Thomas B. Stowell, LL. D.
Do	Occidental College	George F. Cook, Ph. D.
Pasadena, Cal	Throop Polytechnic Institute	A. H. Chamberlain, A. M.
San Jose, Cal	College of the Pacific	J. Wm. Harris, Ph. D.
Stanford University, Cal.	Leland Stanford Junior University	Ellwood P. Cubberley, Ph. D.
Boulder, Colo	University of Colorado	Frank E. Thompson, B. A.
Colorado Springs, Colo	Colorado College	J. V. Breitwieser, A. M.
University Park, Colo	University of Denver	D. E. Phillips, Ph. D.
Washington, D. C	Catholic University of America	Rev. Thomas E. Shields, Ph. D.
Do	George Washington University	W. R. Ruediger, Ph. D., acting.
Do	Howard University (colored)	Lewis B. Moore, Ph. D.
De Land, Fla	John B. Stetson University	Lincoln Hulley, Ph. D., president.
Gainesville, Fla	University of Florida	John A. Thackston, Ph. D.
Tallahassee, Fla	State College for Women	Nathaniel M. Salley, A. M.
Athens, Ga	University of Georgia	T. J. Woofter, Ph. D.
Atlanta, Ga	Atlanta University (colored)	George A. Towns, A. M.
Dahlonega, Ga	North Georgia Agricultural College	Gustavus R. Glenn, LL. D., pres.
South Atlanta, Ga	Clark University (colored)	James A. Wilson, Ph. B.
Moscow, Idaho	University of Idaho	Philip H. Soulen, A. M.
Chicago, Ill	University of Chicago	Chas. H. Judd, Ph. D.
Decatur, Ill	James Millikin University	A. R. Taylor, Ph. D., president.
Evanston, Ill	Northwestern University	Harlan Updegraff, Ph. D.
Greenville, Ill	Greenville College	Clark W. Shay, M. S.
Urbana, Ill	University of Illinois	W. C. Bagley, Ph. D.
Bloomington, Ind	Indiana University	Wm. F. Book, Ph. D.
Crawfordsville, Ind	Wabash College	George H. Tapy, M. A.
Earlham, Ind	Earlham College	J. H. Coffin, Ph. D.
Greencastle, Ind	De Pauw University	Rufus B. Von Kleinsmid, A. M.
Hanover, Ind	Hanover College	Wm. A. Millis, LL. D., president.
Indianapolis, Ind	Butler College	Arthur K. Rogers, Ph. D.
Lafayette, Ind	Purdue University	George L. Roberts, A. M.
Moores Hill, Ind	Moores Hill College	Zenos E. Scott.
Cedar Falls, Iowa	Iowa State Teachers College	Chauncey P. Colgrove, D. Sc.
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Coe College	Alex. C. Robbie, B. A.
Charles City, Iowa	Charles City College	Frederick Schaub, A. M.
Des Moines, Iowa	Des Moines College	David H. Cloyd, A. M.
Do	Drake University	William F. Barr, A. M.
Fayette, Iowa	Upper Iowa University	A. E. Bennett, Ph. D.
Hopkinton, Iowa	Lenox College	P. W. Knuth, A. M.
Indianola, Iowa	Simpson College	Allen Ruggles, A. M.
Iowa City, Iowa	State University of Iowa	Walter A. Jessup, A. M.
Iowa Falls, Iowa	Ellsworth College	H. T. Dagistan, A. M.

VII.—PROFESSORS OF PEDAGOGY AND HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS OF PEDAGOGY IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of professor or head of department.
Lamoni, Iowa	Graceland College	R. M. Stewart, A. B.
Mount Pleasant, Iowa	Iowa Wesleyan College	Elmer E. Lymer, B. S.
Mount Vernon, Iowa	Cornell College	George H. Betts, Ph. M.
Pella, Iowa	Central University of Iowa	John D. Dodson, A. M.
Sioux City, Iowa	Morningside College	E. A. Brown, A. M.
Tabor, Iowa	Tabor College	J. F. Crawford, A. M.
Toledo, Iowa	Leander Clark College	Ross Masters, Ph. M.
University Park, Iowa	Central Holiness University	Mae B. Borton, Pd. B.
Atchison, Kans	Midland College	
Baldwin, Kans	Baker University	Lillian Scott, Ph. B.
Emporia, Kans	Emporia College	Mary A. Ludlum, A. M.
Holton, Kans	Campbell College	W. S. Reese, Ph. M.
Lawrence, Kans	University of Kansas	Charles H Johnston, Ph. D.
Lindsborg, Kans	Bethany College	Anna A. Carlson.
McPherson, Kans	McPherson College	John A. Clement, A. M.
Ottawa, Kans	Ottawa University	Herbert H. Foster, Ph. D.
Salina, Kans	Kansas Wesleyan University	Albert H. King, M. Pd.
Sterling, Kans	Cooper College	Oma Crawley, B. Pd.
Topeka, Kans	Washburn College	Emil C. Wilm, Ph. D.
Wichita, Kans	Fairmount College	Benjamin F. Pittenger, B. Pd.
Do	Friends University	B. W. Truesdell, A. B.
Winfield, Kans	Southwestern College	Henrietta V. Race, A. M.
Berea, Ky	Berea College	John W. Dinsmore, A. M.
Danville, Ky	Central University of Kentucky	Geo. J. Ramsey, LL. D.
Lexington, Ky	State University of Kentucky	James T. Noe, A. M.
Baton Rouge, La	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Alexander B. Coffey, Ph. D., dean.
New Orleans, La	H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College	Margaret E. Cross.
Do	Leland University (colored)	
Do	Tulane University of Louisiana	Joseph M. Gwinn, A. M.
Bowdoin, Me	Bowdoin College	James L. McConaughy.
Orono, Me	University of Maine	Arthur J. Jones, Ph. D.
Baltimore, Md	Johns Hopkins University	Edward F. Buchner, Ph. D.
Do	Morgan College (colored)	Chas. A. Johnson, A. B.
Westminster, Md	Western Maryland College	James Widdowson, A. M.
Boston, Mass	Simmons College	Sarah L. Arnold, A. M.
Cambridge, Mass	Harvard University	Paul H. Hanus, LL. D.
Northampton, Mass	Smith College	Elizabeth K. Adams, Ph. D.
South Hadley, Mass	Mount Holyoke College	Wm. C. Moore, A. M.
Wellesley, Mass	Wellesley College	
Worcester, Mass	Clark University	W. H. Burnham, Ph. D.
Do	Clark College	
Adrian, Mich	Adrian College	Sarah J. Knott, A. M.
Alma, Mich	Alma College	Albert P. Cook.
Ann Arbor, Mich	University of Michigan	Allen S. Whitney, A. B.
Hillsdale, Mich	Hillsdale College	Charles H. Gurney, A. M.
Holland, Mich	Hope College	Edwin N. Brown, Ph. D.
Kalamazoo, Mich	Kalamazoo College	Herbert L. Stetson, LL. D.
Olivet, Mich	Olivet College	E. G. Lancaster, Ph. D., president.
Minneapolis, Minn	University of Minnesota	George F. James, Ph. D.
Northfield, Minn	St. Olaf College	Julius Boraas, M. L.
St. Paul, Minn	Macalester College	Andrew W. Anderson, A. M.
University, Miss	University of Mississippi	James W. Bell, A. M.
Columbia, Mo	University of Missouri	J. L. Meriam, Ph. D.
Fayette, Mo	Central College	Harvey G. Townsend.
St. Louis, Mo	Washington University	Edgar J. Swift, Ph. D.
Springfield, Mo	Drury College	Wm. Orville Allen, Ph. D.
Tarkio, Mo	Tarkio College	John R. Jenison, A. B.
Missoula, Mont	University of Montana	
Bellevue, Nebr	Bellevue College	Wm. C. T. Adams, Ph. D.
Bethany, Nebr	Cotner University	Jas. A. Beattie, LL. D.
College View, Nebr	Union College	Frederick Griggs, president.
Grand Island, Nebr	Grand Island College	Forrest A. Kingsburg, M. A.
Hastings, Nebr	Hastings College	Martin Remp, A. B.
Lincoln, Nebr	University of Nebraska	Charles Fordyce, Ph. D., dean.
University Place, Nebr	Nebraska Wesleyan University	Bertram Everett McProud, A. M.
York, Nebr	York College	Bessie Casebeer, A. B.
Reno, Nev	University of Nevada	Romanzo Adams, Ph. M.
Hanover, N. H	Dartmouth College	Wilmon Henry Sheldon, Ph. D.
New Brunswick, N. J	Rutgers College	E. R. Payson, Ph. D.
Albuquerque, N. Mex	University of New Mexico	Charles E. Hodgin, B. Pd.
Alfred, N. Y	Alfred University	Clarence L. Clarke, Ph. B.
Brooklyn, N. Y	Adelphi College	E. N. Henderson, A. M.
Do	Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn	Fred W. Atkinson, Ph. D., president.
Canton, N. Y	St. Lawrence University	Robt. D. Ford, M. S.
Clinton, N. Y	Hamilton College	W. H. Squires, Ph. D.
Elmira, N. Y	Elmira College	Vida F. Moore, Ph. D.
Geneva, N. Y	Hobart College (Wm. Smith College)	Ida E. Rogers.
Hamilton, N. Y	Colgate University	M. S. Read, Ph. D.
Ithaca, N. Y	Cornell University	Charles De Garmo, Ph. D.

VII.—Professors of Pedagogy and Heads of Departments of Pedagogy in Universities and Colleges—Continued.

Location.	University or college.	Name of professor or head of department.
New York, N. Y.	College of the City of New York	Stephen P. Duggan, Ph. D.
Do.	Columbia University (Teachers College)	James E. Russell, LL. D., dean.
Do.	New York University	T. M. Balliet, Ph. D.
Do.	Normal College of the City of New York	James M. Kieran, LL. D.
Rochester, N. Y.	University of Rochester	George M. Forbes, A. M.
Syracuse, N. Y.	Syracuse University	J. R. Street, Ph. D.
Chapel Hill, N. C.	University of North Carolina	Marcus C. S. Noble.
Durham, N. C.	Trinity College	Eugene C. Brooks, A. B.
Elon College, N. C	Elon College	Thomas C. Amick, Ph. D.
Raleigh, N. C	Meredith College	Mary S. Smith, A. B.
Salisbury, N. C.	Livingstone College (colored)	W. R. Connors, A. B.
Wake Forest, N. C.	Wake Forest College	J. Henry Highsmith.
Agricultural College, N. Dak.	North Dakota Agricultural College	Arland D. Weeks, M. A.
Fargo, N. Dak.	Fargo College	Pitt G. Knowlton.
University, N. Dak.	University of North Dakota	Joseph Kennedy, A. M.
Ada, Ohio	Ohio Northern University	H. L. Frank, A. M.
Alliance, Ohio	Mount Union-Scio College	John B. Bowman, A. M.
Ashland, Ohio	Ashland College	L. Leedy Garber, A. M.
Berea, Ohio	Baldwin University	Fletcher D. Ward, B. S.
Cincinnati, Ohio	University of Cincinnati	Wm. P. Burris, A. M., dean.
Columbus, Ohio	Ohio State University	Wm. W. Boyd, A. M.
Defiance, Ohio	Defiance College	Edward Byers, Sc. D.
Oberlin, Ohio	Oberlin College	Edward A. Miller, A. B.
Tiffin, Ohio	Heidelberg University	Henry L. Beam, A. M.
Westerville, Ohio	Otterbein University	Walter G. Clippinger, B. D., president.
Wilberforce, Ohio	Wilberforce University (colored)	Sarah C. B. Scarborough, M. Pd.
Yellow Springs, Ohio	Antioch College	W. W. Weaver, A. M.
Norman, Okla.	University of Oklahoma	W. W. Phelan.
Stillwater, Okla.	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	John H. Bowers, Ph. D.
Eugene, Oreg.	University of Oregon	Charles J. C. Bennett, Ph. D.
Portland, Oreg.	Reed College	Edward O. Sisson, Ph. D.
Salem, Oreg.	Willamette University	Mary E. Reynolds, B. S.
Allentown, Pa.	Muhlenberg College	G. T. Ettinger, Ph. D.
Annville, Pa.	Lebanon Valley College	C. C. Peters, A. M.
Carlisle, Pa.	Dickinson College	Wm. L. Gooding, Ph. D.
Collegeville, Pa.	Ursinus College	Geo. L. Omwake, Pd. D., president.
Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Bryn Mawr College	James H. Leuba, Ph. D.
Huntingdon, Pa.	Juniata College	Charles C. Ellis, Ph. D.
Lewisburg, Pa.	Bucknell University	Thomas A. Edwards, A. M.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Temple University	Charles A. Coulomb, Ph. D.
Do.	University of Pennsylvania	A. D. Yocum, Ph. D.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	University of Pittsburgh	Will G. Chambers, M. S.
Selinsgrove, Pa.	Susquehanna University	William Noetling, A. M.
Swarthmore, Pa.	Swarthmore College	Bird T. Baldwin, Ph. D.
Villanova, Pa.	Villanova College	John C. Fisher, A. M.
Providence, R. I.	Brown University	W. B. Jacobs, A. M.
Columbia, S. C.	University of South Carolina	Patterson Wardlaw, LL. D.
Orangeburg, S. C.	Claflin University (colored)	J. E. Wallace, A. B.
Brookings, S. Dak.	South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Joseph N. Rodeheaver, Ph. D.
Mitchell, S. Dak.	Dakota Wesleyan University	Gustav S. Petterson, A. M.
Vermilion, S. Dak	University of South Dakota	A. W. Trettien, Ph. D.
Yankton, S. Dak.	Yankton College	Henry K. Warren, LL. D.
Knoxville, Tenn.	University of Tennessee	E. E. Rall, Ph. D.
Austin, Tex.	University of Texas	W. S. Sutton, LL. D.
Fort Worth, Tex.	Polytechnic College	W. C. Bryant, B. A.
Do.	Texas Christian University	John W. Kinsey, A. B.
Georgetown, Tex.	Southwestern University	Claude A. Nichols, Ph. B.
Waco, Tex.	Baylor University	Frederick Eby, Ph. D.
Waxahachie, Tex.	Trinity University	Samuel L. Hornbeak, LL. D., president.
Salt Lake City, Utah	University of Utah	Wm. M. Stewart, M. Di.
Burlington, Vt.	University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.	James Franklin Messenger, Ph. D.
Middlebury, Vt.	Middlebury College	Edward D. Collins, Ph. D.
Emory, Va.	Emory and Henry College	J. P. McConnell, Ph. D., acting.
Lynchburg, Va.	Randolph-Macon Woman's College	Wilmot B. Lane, Ph. D.
Salem, Va.	Roanoke College	F. V. N. Painter, A. M.
Charlottesville, Va.	University of Virginia	Wm. H. Heck, A. M.
Williamsburg, Va.	College of William and Mary	Henry E. Bennett, A. B.
Pullman, Wash.	State College of Washington	Alfred A. Cleveland, Ph. D.
Seattle, Wash.	University of Washington	F. E. Bolton, Ph. D.
Morgantown, W. Va.	West Virginia University	Jasper N. Deahl, Ph. D.
Appleton, Wis.	Lawrence College	Lester B. Rogers, A. M.
Beloit, Wis.	Beloit College	Almon W. Burr, A. M.
Madison, Wis.	University of Wisconsin	M. Vincent O'Shea, B. L.
Ripon, Wis.	Ripon College	Wm. J. Mutch, Ph. D.
Waukesha, Wis.	Carroll College	Samuel B. Ray, M. A.
Laramie, Wyo.	University of Wyoming	John O. Creager, A. M.

VIII.—PRINCIPALS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

1.—*Public normal schools.*

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
ALABAMA.		
Daphne	Daphne State Normal School	B. B. Baker.
Florence	State Normal College	James K. Powers.
Jacksonville	State Normal School	C. W. Daugette.
Livingston	Alabama Normal College for Girls	George W. Brock.
Montgomery	State Colored Normal School	Wm. B. Patterson.
Moundville	State Normal College	B. F. Smith.
Normal	Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.	Walter S. Buchanan.
Troy	State Normal College	E. M. Shackelford.
Tuskegee	Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute (colored).	B. T. Washington.
ARIZONA.		
Flagstaff	Northern Arizona Normal School	R. H. H. Blome.
Tempe	Tempe Normal School of Arizona	A. J. Matthews.
ARKANSAS.		
Conway	Arkansas State Normal School	J. J. Doyne.
Pine Bluff	Branch Normal College (colored)	F. T. Venegar.
CALIFORNIA.		
Chico	State Normal School	Allison Ware.
Fresno	do	C. L. McLane.
Los Angeles	do	Jesse F. Millspaugh.
San Diego	do	Edward L. Hardy.
San Francisco	do	Frederic Burk.
San Jose	do	Morris Elmer Dailey.
Santa Barbara	State Normal School of Manual Arts and Home Economics.	Ednah A. Rich.
COLORADO.		
Gunnison	State Normal School	C. A. Hollingshead.
CONNECTICUT.		
Bridgeport	Bridgeport City Normal School	Besse E. Howes.
Danbury	State Normal Training School	John R. Perkins.
New Britain	State Normal Training School	Marcus White.
New Haven	do	Arthur B. Morrill.
Willimantic	do	Henry T. Burr.
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.		
Washington	Washington Normal School No. 1	Anne M. Goding.
Do	Washington Normal School No. 2 (colored)	Lucy E. Moten.
GEORGIA.		
Athens	State Normal School	Jere M. Pound.
Milledgeville	Georgia Normal and Industrial College	M. M. Parks.
Valdosta	Southern Georgia State Normal College	R. H. Powell.
IDAHO.		
Albion	State Normal School	G. A. Axline.
Lewiston	do	Geo. H. Black.
ILLINOIS.		
Carbondale	Southern Illinois State Normal University	D. B. Parkinson.
Charleston	Eastern Illinois State Normal School	L. C. Lord.
Chicago	Chicago Normal School	Wm. B. Owen.
De Kalb	Northern Illinois State Normal School	John W. Cook.
Macomb	Western Illinois State Normal School	Walter P. Morgan.
Normal	Illinois State Normal University	David Felmley.
INDIANA.		
Fort Wayne	Normal Training School	Flora Wilber.
Indianapolis	Indianapolis Normal School	Miss Marion Lee Webster.
Terre Haute	Indiana State Normal School	William W. Parsons.
KANSAS.		
Emporia	State Normal School	Joseph H. Hill.
Hays	Western State Normal School	William S. Picken.
Pittsburg	State Manual Training Normal School	George E. Myers.

VIII.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

1.—*Public normal schools*—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
KENTUCKY.		
Bowling Green	Western Kentucky State Normal School	H. H. Cherry.
Frankfort	State Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons.	G. P. Russell.
Louisville	Louisville Normal School	
Richmond	Eastern Kentucky State Normal School	J. G. Crabbe.
LOUISIANA.		
Natchitoches	Louisiana State Normal School	V. L. Roy.
New Orleans	New Orleans Normal School	Miss Margaret C. Hanson.
MAINE.		
Castine	Eastern State Normal School	Albert F. Richardson.
Farmington	Farmington State Normal School	Wilbert G. Mallett.
Fort Kent	Madawaska Training School	Mary P. Nowland.
Gorham	Western State Normal School	Walter E. Russell.
Lee	Lee Normal Academy	Elmer R. Verrill.
Machias	Washington State Normal School	William L. Powers.
Presque Isle	Aroostook State Normal School	San Lorenzo Merriman.
Springfield	Springfield Normal School	S. W. Norwood.
MARYLAND.		
Baltimore	Baltimore Teachers Training School	Frank A. Manny.
Do	Colored Training School	Joseph H. Lockerman.
Do	Maryland State Normal School	Sarah E. Richmond.
Bowie	Maryland State Normal and Industrial School (colored).	D. S. S. Goodloe.
Frostburg	Maryland State Normal School No. 2	Edward F. Webb.
MASSACHUSETTS.		
Boston	Boston Normal School	Wallace C. Boyden.
Do	Massachusetts Normal Art School	James F. Hopkins.
Bridgewater	State Normal School	Arthur C. Boyden.
Fall River	Normal Training School	Anna W. Braley.
Fitchburg	State Normal School	John G. Thompson.
Framingham	do	Henry Whittemore.
Hyannis	do	Wm. A. Baldwin.
Lowell	do	Cyrus A. Durgin.
North Adams	do	F. F. Murdock.
Salem	do	Joseph Asbury Pitman.
Westfield	do	Clarence A. Brodeur.
Worcester	do	Wm. B. Aspinwall.
MICHIGAN.		
Allegan	Allegan County Normal School	Susie M. Ellett.
Berrien Springs	Berrien County Normal School	Blanche Pepple.
Charlevoix	Charlevoix County Normal School	Jessie M. Himes.
Charlotte	Eaton County Normal School	Mrs. Ada M. Carrick.
Cheboygan	Cheyboygan County Normal School	Winifred M. Cubbage.
Croswell	Sanilac County Normal School	Cathryne Pickett.
Detroit	Washington Normal School	J. F. Thomas.
Flint	Genesee County Normal School	Katherine Schoenhals.
Hart	Oceana County Normal School	Matilda Bachon.
Ionia	Ionia County Normal School	Edith E. Williamson.
Ithaca	Gratiot County Normal School	Margaret G. Battle.
Kalamazoo	Western State Normal School	Dwight B. Waldo.
Kalkaska	Kalkaska County Normal School	Edith Keen.
Ludington	Mason County Normal School	Mrs. Lilly Robinson.
Marquette	Northern State Normal School	James H. Kaye.
Marshall	Calhoun County Normal School	Eva Warriner.
Mount Pleasant	Central State Normal School	Chas. T. Grawn.
Muskegon	Muskegon County Normal School	L. Marguerite Lux.
Owasso	Shiawassee County Normal School	Mrs. Alice P. Kimball.
Pontiac	Oakland County Normal School	Kate H. Brown.
St. Johns	Clinton County Normal School	Mattie A. Smith.
Saginaw	Saginaw County Normal School	Linda Hankinson.
Standish	Arenac County Normal School	Maud E. Bird.
Ypsilanti	Michigan State Normal College	Charles McKenny
MINNESOTA.		
Duluth	State Normal School	E. W. Bohannon.
Mankato	do	Chas. H. Cooper.
Moorhead	do	Frank A. Weld.
St. Cloud	do	W. A. Shoemaker.
St. Paul	Teachers Training School	L. L. Everly.
Winona	State Normal School	G. E. Maxwell.

VIII.—PRINCIPALS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS—Continued.

1.—*Public normal schools*—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
MISSISSIPPI.		
Hattiesburg	Mississippi Normal College	Joe Cook.
Shelby	Shelby Normal Institute (colored)	J. M. Williamson.
MISSOURI.		
Cape Girardeau	State Normal School	W. S. Dearmont.
Jefferson City	Lincoln Institute (colored)	Benjamin F. Allen.
Kirksville	State Normal School	John R. Kirk.
Maryville	.....do	H. K. Taylor.
St. Louis	Harris Teachers College	John W. Withers.
Springfield	State Normal School	W. T. Carrington.
Warrensburg	.....do	W. J. Hawkins.
MONTANA.		
Dillon	Montana State Normal School	Henry H. Swain.
NEBRASKA.		
Chadron	State Normal School	Joseph Sparks.
Kearney	.....do	A. O. Thomas.
Peru	.....do	D. W. Hayes.
Wayne	.....do	U. S. Conn.
NEW HAMPSHIRE.		
Keene	State Normal School	Wallace E. Mason.
Plymouth	.....do	Ernest L. Silver.
NEW JERSEY.		
Elizabeth	Elizabeth Normal and Training School	Wm. F. Robinson.
Jersey City	Teachers' Training School	Joseph H. Brensinger.
Montclair	New Jersey State Normal School	Chas. S. Chapin.
Newark	Newark Normal and Training School	W. S. Willis.
Paterson	Paterson Normal Training School	Frank W. Smith.
Trenton	New Jersey State Normal School	James M. Green.
NEW MEXICO.		
Las Vegas	New Mexico Normal University	Frank H. H. Roberts.
Silver City	New Mexico Normal School	C. M. Light.
NEW YORK.		
Albany	New York State Normal College	Wm. J. Milne.
Do	Teachers' Training School	C. Edward Jones.
Brockport	State Normal and Training School	Alfred C. Thompson.
Brooklyn	Training School for Teachers	Emma L. Johnston.
Buffalo	State Normal School	Daniel Upton.
Cohoes	Cohoes Training School	Harriet L. Knapp.
Cortland	State Normal and Training School	Harry DeW. DeGroat.
Fredonia	.....do	Myron T. Dana.
Geneseo	Geneseo State Normal School	James V. Sturges.
New Paltz	State Normal School	John C. Bliss.
New York	New York Training School for Teachers	E. N. Jones.
Oneonta	State Normal School	Percy I. Bugbee.
Oswego	Oswego State Normal and Training School	Isaac B. Poucher.
Plattsburg	State Normal School	Geo. K. Hawkins.
Potsdam	State Normal and Training School	Jeremiah M. Thompson.
Rochester	Rochester Training School	Edith A. Scott.
Syracuse	Syracuse Training School for Teachers	G. A. Lewis.
Yonkers	Yonkers Training School for Teachers	Eleanor M. Taylor.
NORTH CAROLINA.		
Cullowhee	Cullowhee Normal and Industrial School	A. C. Reynolds.
Elizabeth City	State Colored Normal School	P. W. Moore.
Fayetteville	.....do	E. E. Smith.
Greenville	East Carolina Teachers Training School	Robt. H. Wright.
Greensboro	State Normal and Industrial College	J. T. Foust.
Pembroke	Croatan Normal College (Indian)	O. V. Hamrick.
Winston	Slater Industrial and State Normal School (colored).	F. M. Kennedy.
NORTH DAKOTA.		
Ellendale	North Dakota State Normal and Industrial School.	W. M. Kern.
Mayville	State Normal School	Thos. A. Hillyer.
Valley City	.....do	Geo. A. McFarland.

VIII.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

1.—*Public normal schools*—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
OHIO.		
Akron	Perkins Normal School	Lee R. Knight.
Athens	State Normal College	Henry G. Williams.
Cleveland	Cleveland Normal Training School	James W. McLane.
Columbus	Columbus Normal School	Margaret W. Sutherland.
Dayton	Dayton Normal School	Grace A. Greene.
Oxford	State Normal College	H. C. Minnich.
Toledo	Toledo Normal Training School	Mr. Ella M. R. Baird.
OKLAHOMA.		
Ada	East Central State Normal School	Chas. W. Briles.
Alva	Northwestern State Normal School	Grant B. Grumbine.
Durant	Southeastern State Normal School	E. D. Murdaugh.
Edmond	Central State Normal School	Charles Evans.
Langston	Colored Agricultural and Normal University.	Inman E. Page.
Tahlequah	Northwestern State Normal School	Frank E. Buck.
Weatherford	Southwestern State Normal School	U. J. Griffith.
OREGON.		
Monmouth	State Normal School	J. H. Ackerman.
PENNSYLVANIA.		
Bloomsburg	State Normal School	D. J. Waller, jr.
California	Southwestern State Normal School	W. S. Hertzog.
Clarion	Clarion State Normal School	Harry M. Shafer.
East Stroudsburg	East Stroudsburg State Normal School	E. L. Kemp.
Edinboro	State Normal School	Frank E. Baker.
Erie	Erie Normal Training School	Celestia J. Hershey.
Harrisburg	Teachers Training School	Anne U. Wert.
Indiana	Indiana Normal School of Pennsylvania	James E. Ament.
Kutztown	Keystone State Normal School	A. C. Rothermel.
Lock Haven	Central State Normal School	George P. Singer.
Mansfield	Mansfield State Normal School	Andrew T. Smith.
Millersville	First Pennsylvania State Normal School	P. Munroe Harbold.
Philadelphia	Philadelphia Normal School for Girls	J. M. Willard.
Do	Philadelphia School of Pedadogy	Francis B. Brandt.
Reading	Normal and Training School for Girls	Martha A. Seiders.
Shippensburg	Cumberland Valley State Normal School	Samuel A. Martin.
Slippery Rock	Slippery Rock State Normal School	Albert E. Maltby.
West Chester	State Normal School	George M. Philips.
RHODE ISLAND.		
Providence	Rhode Island State Normal School	John L. Alger.
SOUTH CAROLINA.		
Orangeburg	Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural, and Mechanical College of South Carolina.	Robert S. Wilkinson.
Rockhill	Winthrop Normal College	D. B. Johnson.
SOUTH DAKOTA.		
Aberdeen	Northern Normal and Industrial School	Geo. W. Nash.
Madison	State Normal School	J. W. Heston.
Spearfish	do	F. L. Cook.
Springfield	do	G. G. Wenzlaff.
TENNESSEE.		
Johnson City	East Tennessee State Normal School	S. G. Gilbreath.
Memphis	West Tennessee State Normal School	Seymour A. Mynders.
Murfreesboro	Middle Tennessee State Normal School	R. L. Jones.
Nashville	State Agricultural and Industrial Normal School for Negroes.	W. J. Hale.
TEXAS.		
Canyon City	West Texas State Normal College	R. B. Cousins.
Denton	North Texas State Normal College	W. H. Bruce.
Huntsville	Sam Houston State Normal Institute	H. F. Estill.
Prairie View	Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College (colored).	Ed. L. Blackshear.
San Marcos	Southwest Texas State Normal School	C. E. Evans.

VIII.—PRINCIPALS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS—Continued.

1.—*Public normal schools*—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
UTAH.		
Cedar City	Southern Branch of the State Normal School.	G. W. Decker.
VERMONT.		
Castleton	State Normal School	Charles A. Adams.
Johnson	do	Lyman R. Allen.
VIRGINIA.		
Farmville	State Female Normal School	J. L. Jarman.
Fredericksburg	State Normal and Industrial School for Women.	E. H. Russell.
Hampton	Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute (colored).	H. B. Frissell.
Harrisonburg	State Normal and Industrial School for Women.	Julian A. Burruss.
Petersburg	Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute (colored).	J. H. Johnston.
WASHINGTON.		
Bellingham	State Normal School	Edward T. Mathes.
Cheney	do	N. D. Showalter.
Ellensburg	do	W. E. Wilson.
WEST VIRGINIA.		
Athens	State Normal School	C. L. Bemis.
Fairmont	do	O. I. Woodley.
Glenville	do	E. C. Rohrbough.
Huntington	Marshall College, State Normal School	Lawrence J. Corbly.
Institute	West Virginia Colored Institute	Byrd Prillerman.
Shepherdstown	Shepherd College, State Normal School	Thomas C. Miller.
West Liberty	West Liberty State Normal School	John C. Shaw.
WISCONSIN.		
Algoma	Door-Kewaunee County Training School	J. A. Eichinger.
Alma	Buffalo County Training School	H. H. Liebenberg.
Antigo	Langlade County Training School	C. O. Marsh.
Berlin	Green Lake County Training School	Edgar Packard.
Columbus	Columbia County Training School	S. M. Thomas.
Eau Claire	Eau Claire County Training School	W. A. Clark.
Gays Mills	Crawford County Training School	G. E. Pratt.
Grand Rapids	Wood County Training School	M. H. Jackson.
Janesville	Rock County Training School	F. J. Lowth.
Kaukauna	Outagamie County Training School	Leo G. Schussmann.
La Crosse	State Normal School	F. A. Cotton.
Ladysmith	Rusk County Training School	R. H. Burns.
Manitowoc	Manitowoc County Training School	Fred Christiansen.
Marinette	Marinette County Training School	A. M. Olson.
Meadford	Taylor County Training School	J. H. Wheelock.
Menomonie	Dunn County Training School	G. L. Bowman.
Do	Stout Institute	L. D. Harvey.
Merrill	Lincoln County Training School	A. H. Cole.
Milwaukee	State Normal School	W. H. Cheever.
Monroe	Green County Training School	C. H. Dietz.
New London	Waupaca County Training School	C. B. Stanley.
Oshkosh	State Normal School	John A. H. Keith.
Phillips	Price County Training School	D. A. Swartz.
Platteville	State Normal School	W. J. Sutherland.
Reedsburg	Sauk County Training School	W. E. Smith.
Rhinelander	Oneida County Training School	B. M. Dresden.
Rice Lake	Barron County Training School	John E. Hale.
Richland Center	Richland County Training School	A. A. Thomson.
River Falls	State Normal School	J. W. Crabtree.
St. Croix Falls	Polk County Training School	C. W. Monty.
Stevens Point	State Normal School	John F. Sims.
Superior	Superior State Normal School	V. E. McCaskill.
Viroqua	Vernon County Training School	A. E. Smith.
Wausau	Marathon County Training School	O. E. Wells.
Wautoma	Waushara County Training School	G. E. Dafoe.
Whitewater	State Normal School	Albert H. Yoder.

VIII—PRINCIPALS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS—Continued.

2.—*Private normal schools.*

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
ALABAMA.		
Snow Hill	Snow Hill Normal and Industrial Institute (colored).	W. J. Edwards.
ARKANSAS.		
Pea Ridge	Pea Ridge Masonic College	S. C. Parish.
CALIFORNIA.		
Berkeley	Oakland Kindergarten Training Class	Grace E. Barnard.
COLORADO.		
Denver	Denver Normal and Preparatory School	R. A. Le Doux
CONNECTICUT.		
Bridgeport	Fannie A. Smith Froebel Kindergarten and Training School.	Fannie A. Smith.
FLORIDA.		
Jasper	Jasper Normal Institute	Geo. M. Lynch.
Madison	Florida Normal Institute	W. B. Cate.
Orange Park	Orange Park Normal and Manual Training School (colored).	Rev. George B. Hurd.
GEORGIA.		
Social Circle	Negro Normal and Industrial School	James A Love.
ILLINOIS.		
Addison	German Evangelical Lutheran Teachers Seminary.	Theo. Brohm.
Chicago	National Kindergarten College	Elizabeth Harrison.
Do	Chicago Kindergarten Institute	Mary B. Page.
Dixon	Dixon College and Normal School	I. Frank Edwards.
Hoopeston	Greer College	E. L. Bailey.
Oregon	Wells School for Teachers	H. W. Sullivan.
INDIANA.		
Angola	Tri-State College	L. M. Sniff.
Danville	Central Normal College	J. W. Laird.
Indianapolis	Teachers College of Indianapolis	Eliza A. Blaker.
Marion	Marion Normal Institute	J. V. Jackson.
Muncie	Muncie Normal Institute	M. D. Kelly.
Rochester	Rochester Normal University	John C. Werner.
IOWA.		
Bloomfield	Normal and Scientific Institute	H. C. Brown.
Shenandoah	Western Normal College	J. M. Hussey.
KANSAS.		
Nickerson	Nickerson College	E. B. Smith.
KENTUCKY.		
Lexington	Chandler Normal School (colored)	Fannie J. Webster.
Louisa	Kentucky Normal College	Walter M. Byington.
Morehead	Morehead Normal School	J. A. Robison.
MASSACHUSETTS.		
Boston	Froebel School, Kindergarten Normal Classes.	Annie C. Rust.
Do	Kindergarten Training School	Lucy Wheelock.
Do	Perry Kindergarten Normal School	Annie M. Perry.
Do	Symonds Kindergarten Training School	Lucy H. Symonds.
Cambridge	Lesley Normal School	Edith L. Wolfard.
Springfield	Springfield Normal Kindergarten Training School.	Hattie Twichell.

VIII.—PRINCIPALS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS—Continued.

2.—*Private normal schools*—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
MICHIGAN.		
Grand Rapids	Grand Rapids Kindergarten Training School.	Clara Wheeler.
Petoskey	Petoskey Normal and Business College	E. L. Warren.
MINNESOTA.		
Madison	Lutheran Normal School	K. Lokensgard.
New Ulm	Dr. Martin Luther College	A. Ackermann.
MISSISSIPPI.		
Tougaloo	Normal Department, Tougaloo University (colored).	Rev. Austin Hazen, acting.
MISSOURI.		
Kansas City	Froebel Kindergarten Training School	Elizabeth Moss.
NEBRASKA.		
Fremont	Fremont Normal School	W. H. Clemmons.
Santee	Santee Normal Training School (Indian)	Alfred L. Riggs.
NEW YORK.		
New York	The Jenny Hunter Kindergarten Training School.	Jenny Hunter.
NORTH CAROLINA.		
Albemarle	Albemarle Normal and Collegiate Institute.	Rev. Geo. H. Atkinson.
Asheville	Normal and Collegiate Institute	Edward F. Childs.
Charlotte	Rowan Normal Industrial Institute	C. S. Somerville.
Franklinton	Albion Academy (colored)	John A. Savage.
Raleigh	St. Augustine School (colored)	Rev. A. B. Hunter
OHIO.		
Canfield	Northeastern Ohio Normal College	J. Freeman Guy.
Cleveland	Cleveland Kindergarten Training School	Netta Faris.
Dayton	St. Mary's Institute	Brother George Deek.
Ewington	Ohio Southern Normal College	H. W. Woodruff.
Toledo	Law Froebel Kindergarten Training School.	Mary E. Law.
Woodville	Woodville Lutheran Normal School	K. Hemminghaus.
PENNSYLVANIA.		
Cheney	Institute for Colored Youth	Hugh M. Browne.
Muncy	Lycoming County Normal School	S. B. Dunlap.
Philadelphia	Froebellian Training School for Women	Emily D. Wright.
Do	Gratz College (Hebrew Normal)	Rabbi H. M. Speaker.
Do	Miss Hart's Training School for Kindergartners.	Miss C. M. C. Hart.
Pittsburgh	Pittsburg and Allegheny Kindergarten College.	Mrs. James I. Buchanan.
SOUTH CAROLINA.		
Charleston	Avery Normal Institute (colored)	I. Newton Owen.
Gaffney	Cherokee Normal and Industrial Institute (colored).	A. A. Sims.
Greenwood	Brewer Normal School (colored)	Rev. J. M. Robinson.
Lancaster	Lancaster Normal and Industrial Institute (colored).	Robert J. Crockett.
SOUTH DAKOTA.		
Sioux Falls	Lutheran Normal School	Rev. Z. J. Ordal.
Yankton	Yankton Kindergarten Training School	Alice Daugherty.
TENNESSEE.		
Memphis	Le Moyne Normal Institute (colored)	Ludwig T. Larsen.
Morristown	Morristown Normal Asadamy (colored)	Judson S. Hill.
Nashville	George Peabody College for Teachers	Bruce R. Payne.
TEXAS.		
Commerce	East Texas Normal College	W. L. Mayo.

VIII.—PRINCIPALS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS—Continued.

2.—*Private normal schools*—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
VIRGINIA.		
Lawrenceville	St. Paul Normal and Industrial School (colored).	Rev. James S. Russell.
Richmond	Richmond Training School for Kindergartners.	Lucy S. Coleman.
WEST VIRGINIA.		
Harpers Ferry	Storer College (colored)	Henry T. McDonald.
WISCONSIN.		
Milwaukee	National German-American Teachers' Seminary.	Max Griebsch.
St. Francis	Catholic Normal School	Rev. J. M. Kasel.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
ALABAMA.				
Birmingham	City Training School for Teachers	C. B. Glenn	June 2	June 27
Florence	State Normal College	Jas. K. Powers	June 6	July 18
Jacksonville	State Normal School	C. W. Daugette	May 27	July 19
Mobile	County Teachers' Training School	S. S. Murphy	June 15	Aug. 1
Troy	State Normal School	E. M. Shackelford	June 1	July 15
Tuskegee	Summer School for Teachers (Tuskegee Institute).[1]	J. R. E. Lee	June 16	July 12
University	University of Alabama	James J. Doster	June 13	July 25
ARIZONA.				
Flagstaff	Northern Arizona Normal School	R. H. H. Blome, Ph. D.	June 16	Aug. 8
ARKANSAS.				
Conway	Arkansas State Normal	J. J. Doyne	June 9	July 18
Fayetteville	University of Arkansas	W. A. Johnson	June 16	July 25
CALIFORNIA.				
Alma	Cathedral Oaks School of Art	Chas. F. Ingerson	June 15	Aug. 15
Berkeley	California School of Arts and Crafts	Frederick H. Meyer	June 23	Aug. 4
Do	University of California	Chas. H. Rieber	do	Aug. 3
Los Angeles	College of Fine Arts (University of Southern California).	W. L. Judson	July 1	Aug. 30
Do	Summer Elementary School		do	Aug. 16
Do	Summer High School	T. Fulton and R. G. Van Cleve.	do	Do.
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School for Boys.	J. A. Gillaspie	July 7	Aug. 30
Mount Hermon	Sequoia School of Applied Arts	James E. Addicott, A. M.	do	Aug. 15
Pacific Grove	Marine Biological Laboratory (Leland Stanford Junior University).	O. P. Jenkins C. H. Gilbert	May 28	July 9
Pasadena	Camp Merriam, Y. M. C. A. Summer School for Boys.	J. Y. Kerr	June 24	July 18
Stockton	Stockton Commercial College	A. Johnson	July 7	Aug. 29
COLORADO.				
Boulder	Colorado Chautauqua	F. A. Boggess	July 8	Aug. 16
Do	University of Colorado	M. G. Derham	June 23	Aug. 2
Colorado Springs	Colorado College	George M. Howe, Ph. D.	June 25	Do.
Denver (1625 Champa St.).	Barnes Commercial School	E. C. Barnes	June 2	Aug. 30

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[1] Negro school.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
COLORADO—continued.				
Denver	Denver Manual Training School	Milton Clauser		
Do	Denver Normal and Preparatory School.	C. J. Blout	June 16	July 26
Greeley	State Teachers' College of Colorado.	Z. X. Snyder	June 9	July 18
Gunnison	Colorado State Normal School	C. A. Hollingshead	June 11	July 19
Tolland	School of Mountain Field Biology (University of Colorado).	Francis Ramaley	June 23	Aug. 2
University Park	University of Denver	Wilbur D. Engle, Ph. D.	June 16	July 25
Woodland Park	Summer School of Surveying (Colorado College).	Geo. E. Martin	June 2	June 28
CONNECTICUT.				
Danbury	State Normal Training School	John R. Perkins	July 1	July 29
Hartford	Hillyer Institute (Y. M. C. A.)	Ralph A. Tracy	...do	Aug. 15
Lakeville	German Summer School	Lillian L. Stroebe, Ph. D.	July 7	Aug. 17
Lyme	Old Lyme Art Class	Alon Bement	July 10	Sept. 10
New Britain	Y. M. C. A. Summer School for Boys	J. C. Moody	July 9	Aug. 17
New Haven	Hopkins Grammar School	Arthur B. Woodford	Aug. 18	Sept. 26
Do	New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics.	E. H. Arnold	Aug. 4	Aug. 30
Redding Ridge	Sanford School	D. S. Sanford	July 1	Sept. 15
Storrs	Summer School of Nature Study and Agriculture (Connecticut Agricultural College).	Albert F. Blakeslee, Ph. D.	...do	July 25
DELAWARE.				
Dover	Delaware School of Methods			
Do	State College for Colored Students	W. C. Jason	July 1	July 31
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.				
Washington	The Sisters College (Catholic University of America).	T. E. Shields	...do	Aug. 10
FLORIDA.				
Gainesville	Teachers' Summer Training School	A. A. Murphree, LL. D.	June 16	July 25
Jacksonville	Miss Jacobi's School	Gertrude Jacobi		
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	J. C. Baldwin	June 30	Aug. 8
Lakeland	Lakeland Summer School	Charles M. Jones	May 5	June 6
Madison	Florida Normal Institute	W. B. Cate	June 12	Aug. 30
Sutherland	Southern College	E. W. McMullen	July 22	Sept. 13
Tallahassee	A. and M. College Training School for Teachers.[1]	N. B. Young	June 18	July 27
Do	Teachers' Summer Training School.	Edw. Conradi, Ph. D.	June 16	July 26
GEORGIA.				
Athens	University of Georgia	T. J. Woofter	June 26	Aug. 2
Atlanta	Georgia School of Technology	A. B. Morton	July 14	Sept. 5
Macon	Mercer University	R. W. Edenfield	June 11	Aug. 20
Oxford	Emory College	E. K. Turner	June 15	Do.
IDAHO.				
Boise	State Summer School	C. E. Rose	June 23	Aug. 1
Couer d'Alene	State Summer Normal School	Earl S. Wooster	June 16	July 25
Moscow	Joint Summer Session, Lewiston State Normal School and University of Idaho.	George H. Black	...do	Do.
Pocatello	State Summer School	Miles F. Reed	June 23	Aug. 1
ILLINOIS.				
Carbondale	Southern Illinois Normal University.	D. B. Parkinson, Ph. D.	June 9	July 18
Charleston	Eastern Illinois State Normal School.	L. C. Lord, LL. D.	June 16	July 25
Chicago (523 Fine Arts Building).	Anna Groff-Bryant Institute of Vocal Art.	Anna Groff-Bryant	June 17	Aug. 23
Chicago (Lincoln Center).	Applied Arts Summer School (Atkinson, Mentzer & Co.).	Florence Fitch	July 9	July 28

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[1] Negro school.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
ILLINOIS—continued.				
Chicago	Armour Institute of Technology	H. M. Raymond	June 23	Aug. 11
Do	Art Institute Art School	Wm. M. R. French	June 30	Sept. 19
Chicago (1200 Michigan Avenue).	Chicago Kindergarten College	Elizabeth Harrison	June 17	Aug. 8
Chicago (606 South Michigan Avenue).	Chicago School of Applied and Normal Art.	Emma M. Church	July 28	Aug. 22
Chicago (31 West Lake Street).	Chicago School of Civics and Philanthrophy.	Graham Taylor	June 24	July 26
Chicago (430 South Wabash Avenue).	Chicago School of Physical Education and Expression.	Mrs. R. L. Parsons	June 28	Aug. 2
Chicago	Chicago Teachers College	Wm. B. Owen	June 23	July 25
Chicago (328 Wabash Avenue).	Columbia School of Music	Clare Osborn Reed	do	July 26
Chicago (Auditorium Building).	Cosmopolitan School of Music and Dramatic Art.	Mrs. W. S. Bracken	June 30	Aug. 30
Chicago (32 South Wabash Avenue).	Gregg Summer Normal School	John R. Gregg	July 7	Aug. 15
Chicago	Lewis Institute	Geo. N. Carman, A. M.	June 30	Aug. 8
Chicago (2301 Prairie Avenue).	National Summer School of Music (Ginn & Co.).	Ada M. Fleming	July 28	Aug. 22
Chicago (1104 South Wabash Avenue).	New School of Methods in Public School Music (American Book Co.).	Mary Reid Pierce	June 23	July 5
Chicago (81 East Madison Street).	Paterson School of Millinery	Rosamond G. Paterson	June 15	Sept. 1
Chicago (Forty-second Street and Grand Blvd.).	Physical Culture Training School	F. S. Goodrich, Ph. D.	July 8	Sept. 12
Chicago	Prang Summer School of Normal Art (Prang Co., 358 Fifth Avenue, New York City).	Hugo B. Froehlich	July 9	July 27
Chicago	Rush Medical College			
Chicago (712 Fine Arts Building).	Sherwood Music School	Walter Keller	June 25	July 31
Chicago	University of Chicago, summer quarter.	Harry Pratt Judson	June 19	Sept. 1
Chicago (Fifty-eighth Street and Monroe Avenue).	University High School (University of Chicago).	Franklin W. Johnson.	June 16	Aug. 29
Chicago (19 South La Salle Street).	Y. M. C. A. Summer School (Central department).	A. L. Ward	July 7	Aug. 30
Chicago	Y. M. C. A. Summer School for Boys (Division Street department).	J. D. Ellis	July 1	Aug. 25
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School for Boys (Wilson Avenue department).	H. A. Mendelsohn	July 10	Do.
Dekalb	Northern Illinois State Normal School.	John W. Cook	June 3	Aug. 1
Evanston	American Institute of Normal Methods (Silver, Burdett & Co.).	Edward B. Birge	July 8	July 25
Macomb	Western Illinois State Normal School.	Walter P. Morgan	June 16	Do.
Normal	Illinois State Normal University	David Felmley, LL. D	June 9	Aug. 27
Peoria	Summer School of Manual Training and Domestic Economy (Bradley Polytechnic Institute).	Theodore C. Burgess	June 30	Aug. 1
Urbana	University of Illinois	W. C. Bagley	June 16	Aug. 8
INDIANA.				
Angola	Tri-State College	Willis A. Fox	June 10	Aug 29
Bloomington	Indiana University	William L. Bryan	June 19	Do.
Culver	Culver Military Academy	L. R. Gignilliat	June 28	Aug. 24
Danville	Central Normal College	J. W. Laird	May 27	Aug. 15
Earlham	Earlham College	W. O. Mendenhall	July 1	Aug. 10
Do	Indiana Public Library Commission School for Librarians.	Carl H. Milan	June 25	Aug. 5
Goshen	Goshen College	C. B. Blosser	June 2	Aug. 22
Greencastle	DePauw University	R. B. von KleinSmid.	May 19	Aug. 16
Hanover	Hanover College	W. A. Millis, LL. D	June 18	Sept. 5
Indianapolis	Butler College	Thos. C. Howe	June 23	Aug. 2
Do	Indiana Central University	L. D. Bonebrake, LL. D.	May 26	Aug. 15
Do	Indianapolis Summer School (public schools).	J. F. Thornton	June 18	July 25

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
INDIANA—continued.				
Indianapolis	John Herron Art Institute	Wm. Coughlen	June 16	Sept. 12
Do	Normal College of the North American Gymnastic Union.	Emil Rath	July 7	Aug. 2
Do	Teachers' College of Indianapolis	Eliza A. Blaker	June 4	Aug. 22
Moores Hill	Moores Hill College	Harry Andrews	May 27	Aug. 15
North Manchester	Manchester College	Otho Winger, A. M.	May 26	Do.
Richmond	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	D. D. Ramsey	July 15	Sept. 1
Rochester	Rochester College	John C. Werner	June 1	Aug. 25
Terre Haute	Indiana State Normal School	Wm. W. Parsons	June 16	Sept. 5
Valparaiso	Valparaiso University	H. B. Brown, A. M.	May 27	Aug. 13
Winona Lake	Winona College	Johnathan Rigdon, Ph. D.	June 9	Aug. 29
IOWA.				
Ames	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	A. V. Storm	June 16	July 26
Cedar Falls	Iowa State Teachers' College	Homer H. Seerley	June 14	July 25
Cedar Rapids	Coe College	J. H. Scott	June 16	July 27
Des Moines	Des Moines College School of Education.	David E. Cloyd, A. M.	do	July 25
Do	Drake University	William F. Barr, A. M.	do	Do.
Fayette	Upper Iowa University	Arthur E. Bennett	do	July 27
Indianola	Simpson College	A. G. Ruggles	June 17	July 30
Iowa City	University of Iowa	John G. Bowman, LL. D.	do	July 26
Mount Vernon	Cornell College	Geo. H. Betts, Ph. D.	June 15	July 25
Oskaloosa	Oskaloosa College	John Meissner		
Do	Penn College	W. I. Kelsey	June 16	July 24
Shenandoah	Western Normal College	J. M. Hussey	June 10	July 25
Sioux City	Morningside College	E. A. Brown, A. M.	June 16	Do.
Tabor	Tabor College	F. W. Long, D. D.	June 17	July 26
KANSAS.				
Baldwin	Baker University	Lilian Scott, A. M.	June 9	July 19
Emporia	State Normal School	Joseph H. Hill	June 1	Aug. 1
Hays	Western State Normal School	W. S. Picken	June 2	Do.
Lawrence	University of Kansas	A. T. Walker	June 12	July 23
Manhattan	Kansas State Agricultural College	E. L. Holton	June 10	July 22
Pittsburg	State Manual Training Normal School.	Geo. E. Myers, Ph. D.	June 5	Aug. 2
Topeka	Washburn College	Ira D. Cardiff	June 2	[1] July 11
Wichita	Fairmount College	A. J. Hoare, A. M.	June 16	July 26
KENTUCKY.				
Bowling Green	Western Kentucky State Normal	H. H. Cherry, LL. D.	June 17	July 25
Frankfort	Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute.			
Lexington	University of Kentucky	Henry S. Barker	June 12	Aug. 3
Richmond	Eastern Kentucky State Normal	J. G. Crabbe, LL. D.	June 16	July 25
LOUISIANA.				
Baton Rouge	Summer School for Colored Teachers.	J. S. Clark, A. M.	June 2	July 11
Do	University of Louisiana	A. B. Coffey	do	Aug. 1
Lafayette	Southwestern Louisiana Industrial Institute Summer Normal.	E. L. Stephens	do	Aug. 2
Natchitoches	Louisiana State Normal School	V. L. Roy	June 15	Aug. 25
New Orleans	Tulane University	A. B. Dinwiddie, LL. D.	June 12	Aug. 13
Do	Summer School of Medicine (Tulane University).	Isadore Dyer	June 9	Sept. 25
Ruston	Louisiana Industrial Institute	J. E. Keeny, A. M.	June 2	July 31
Shreveport	Summer School for Colored Teachers.	T. H. Kane	do	July 12
MAINE.				
Augusta	Summer Library Class (State Library Commission).	Kate C. Estabrooke		
Boothbay Harbor	Commonwealth Art Colony	A. G. Randall	July 1	Sept. 1
Do	New York School of Fine and Applied Arts (2239 Broadway).	Frank A. Parsons	do	Do.
Do	Prang Summer School (The Prang Co., 358 Fifth Ave., New York City).	Elizabeth G. Branch		

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[1] Law department closes Aug. 1.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
MAINE—continued.				
Castine	Eastern State Normal	Albert Richardson	July 14	July 26
Denmark	Wyonegonic and Winona Camps	C. E. Cobb	July 1	Aug. 31
Farmington	State Normal School	W. G. Mallett	July 9	July 20
Five Islands	Seguinland School of Photography	Clarence H. White (5 West Thirty-first St., New York City).	July 5	Aug. 15
Fort Kent	Madawaska Training School	Mary P. Nowland		
Gorham	Western State Normal School	W. E. Russell	July 7	July 18
Greenville	Moosehead Lake Camp	Fred E. Clerk (Brockton, Mass.).	July 1	Sept. 1
Greenville Junction	Pine Tree Camp	Chas. E. Hicks		
Harrison	Wildmere Camp for Boys	Irving L. Woodman	July 2	Sept. 2
Machias	State Normal School	Wm. L. Powers	July 7	July 18
Monhegan	Summer School of Metal Work	Wm. H. Varnum	July 6	Aug. 20
Naples	Camp Keoka for Boys	C. S. Mitchell (Hightstown, N. J.).	July 1	Sept. 1
Ogunquit	Summer School of Drawing and Painting.	C. H. Woodbury (1010 Carnegie Hall, New York City).	July 6	Aug. 15
Orono	University of Maine	Robert J. Aley	June 27	Aug. 7
Presque Isle	Aroostook State Normal School	S. L. Merriman	July 14	Aug. 21
South Bristol	Studio of Design	Sarah Bryant Taylor	July 7	Aug. 26
South Harpswell	Harpswell Laboratory (Tufts College, Tufts College, Mass.).	J. S. Kingsley	June 15	Sept. 10
South Hope	Alford Lake Camp for Girls	Susan M. Kingsbury, Ph. D.; Florence Marshall (110 Hancock Street, Cambridge, Mass.).	July 2	Aug. 29
South Limington	Moy-Mo-Da-Yo Camp for Girls	Elizabeth M. Moody; F. Helen Mayo.	July 1	Aug. 29
Steep Falls	Wildwood Camp for Girls	do	do	Do.
Unity	Camp Winnecook for Boys	H. L. Rand (25 Shore Road, Salem, Mass).	do	Aug. 31
MARYLAND.				
Baltimore	Johns Hopkins University	Edward F. Buchner	July 2	Aug. 13
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	Ralph R. Blackney	July 7	Aug. 20
Mountain Lake Park	Mountain Lake Park Summer School.	Chas. E. Shelton, D. D		
Do	Washington City Normal Kindergarten Institute.	Susan P. Pollock (1516 Columbia Road, Washington, D. C.).	July 16	Aug. 28
MASSACHUSETTS.				
Amherst	Massachusetts Agricultural College.	William D. Hurd	July 2	Aug. 1
Boston (20 B. Aldworth).	Alexander Robinson Sketching Tours.	Alexander Robinson	June 1	Oct. 1
Boston (New England Conservatory of Music).	American Institute of Normal Methods (Silver, Burdett & Co.).	Samuel W. Cole	July 8	July 31
Boston	Boston Floating Hospital Post-Graduate Course for Nurses.	Sarah A. Egan (54 Devonshire Street).	June 28	Sept. 15
Do	Emerson College of Oratory	Harry S. Ross	July 7	Aug. 1
Boston (30 Huntington Avenue).	Miss Farmer's School of Cookery	Fannie M. Farmer	July 11	Aug. 15
Boston	Harvard Summer School of Medicine.	Robert M. Green	(1)	
Do	Massachusetts Institute of Technology.		June 11	Sept. 24
Boston (518 Pierce Building).	Monro Summer School for Teachers of the Deaf.	Sarah J. Monro	July 1	July 30
Boston (46-54 St. Botolph Street).	Posse Normal School of Gymnastics.	Marguerite Moir	July 3	Aug. 1
Boston (306 Pierce Building).	School of Expression (five terms)	S. S. Curry, Ph. D	May 12	Sept. 30
Boston (Fenway P. O.).	Simmons College Library School	E. H. Eldredge, Ph. D.; Mary E. Robbins.	July 8	Aug. 16
Boston	Y. M. C. A. Preparatory School	Ira A. Flinner, A. M.	June 23	Sept. 12
Do	Y. M. C. A. Preparatory School (evening session).	do	May 19	Sept. 19
Bourne	Old Colony Union Industrial School	Elizabeth M. Thompson.	July 8	Oct. 12

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[1] To be merged in the Harvard Graduate School of Medicine.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
MASSACHUSETTS—con.				
Brockton	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	W. F. Buch	July 7	Aug. 18
Cambridge	Harvard Summer School	James H. Ropes	July 1	Aug. 12
East Gloucester	Summer Art School	Eugenie M. Heller	May 1	Nov. 15
Edgartown	The Branstock School of Art			
Everett	Camp Mooswa (Lake Annis, Nova Scotia).	George H. Cain	July 1	Sept. 1
Gloucester	Summer Sketching Class (Colonial Studios, 39 West Sixty-seventh St., New York City).	Rhoda H. Nicholls		
Hyannis	State Normal School	W. A. Baldwin	July 8	Aug. 8
Lynn (44 Central Sq.)	Lawrence Drawing School	C. A. Lawrence	July 15	Aug. 31
Lynn	Y. M. C. A. Summer School for Boys.	Philip Emerson	July 7	Aug. 15
Malden	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	Cora H. Dempsey	do	Aug. 23
Melrose	do	Willis Fisher	July 1	Aug. 30
Norfolk	Wareland's Dairy School	Charlotte B. Ware	do	July 31
Oak Bluffs	Treat's School	Edwin B. Treat, A. M.	July 10	Sept. 21
Provincetown	Cape Cod School of Art	C. W. Hawthorne (450 Fifth Ave., New York City).	July 1	Sept. 1
Do	Summer School of Painting	E. Ambrose Webster	June 1	Oct. 1
South Orleans	"Quanset," Cape Cod Camp for Girls.	Mrs. E. A. W. Hammatt (30 Norway Park, Hyde Park, Mass.).	July 1	Sept. 1
Springfield	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	L. W. De Gast	July 7	Aug. 15
Vineyard Haven	Marthas Vineyard School of Art	A. R. Freedlander (80 West Fortieth St., New York City).	June 26	Sept. 9
Woods Hole	Marine Biological Laboratory	Frank R. Lillie, Ph. D.	July 1	Aug. 12
MICHIGAN.				
Ann Arbor	University of Michigan	Edward H. Kraus	[1] June 30	Aug. 22
Battle Creek	Normal School of Physical Education.	Wm. W. Hastings, Ph. D.	June 27	Aug. 21
Bay View	Bay View Summer University	John M. Hall	July 14	Aug. 16
Berrien Springs	Emmanuel Missionary College	O. J. Graf, M. A	June 12	July 24
Big Rapids	Ferris Institute	W. N. Ferris, M. Pd	June 30	Aug. 8
Corey	Y. M. C. A. (South Bend, Ind.) Summer School for Boys.	Vernon Helmen	June 15	July 30
Detroit (163 Cass Ave.)	The Business Institute	Lewis Cass Rauch	July 7	Aug. 15
Detroit	Detroit Conservatory of Music	Francis L. York, M. A.	June 22	July 27
Do	Michigan Conservatory of Music	Frederic L. Abel	June 23	July 26
Detroit (379 Hubbard Ave).	Summer School for Teachers (Reed School).			
East Lansing	Graduate School of Agriculture	A. C. True, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.	(2)	(2)
Grand Rapids	Grand Rapids Kindergarten Training School.	Clara Wheeler	July 1	Aug. 23
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School for Boys	Wilbur W. Nigh	July 8	Aug. 30
Jackson	do	C. A. Laraway	do	Do.
Kalamazoo	Western State Normal School	D. B. Waldo, LL.D	June 30	Aug. 8
Marquette	State Normal School			
Mount Pleasant	Central State Normal School	Charles T. Grawn, A.M.	June 30	Aug 8
Topinabee	University of Michigan Biological Station.	Jacob Reighard	July 2	Aug. 24
Vanderbilt	Forestry School (Michigan Agricultural College).	J. Fred Baker	June 19	Aug. 10
Ypsilanti	Michigan State Normal College	Chas. McKenny	June 30	Aug. 8
MINNESOTA.				
Aitkin	County Teachers' Training School	C. L. Newberry	July 1	July 27
Albert Lea	do	C. H. Barnes		
Badger	do	P. A. Davis	July 1	Aug. 1
Bemidji	do	W. P. Dyer	June 16	July 25
Brainerd	do	E. T. Carroll	July 1	Aug. 1
Buffalo	do	G. A. Foster		
Crookston	Teachers' Training School (School of Agriculture).	C. G. Selvig	June 15	July 30
Detroit	County Teachers' Training School	G. E. Keenan		

[1] School of Law, June 23 to Aug. 29; School of Medicine, June 30 to Aug. 8.

[2] Next session will be held in July, 1914.

IX.—Summer School Directors—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
MINNESOTA—contd.				
Duluth	State Normal School	E. W. Bohannon	June 10	July 25
Fulda	County Teachers' Training School	P. J. Kuntz		
Glenwood	do	N. H. Hegel	June 18	July 28
Hinckley	do			
Hutchinson	do	H. L. Merrill		
Jackson	do	Geo. H. Sanberg		
Lake City	do	H. L. Brown	June 17	July 29
Little Falls	do	H. E. White	June 24	July 26
Long Prairie	do	F. W. Dobbyn	June 15	Aug. 1
Luverne	do	H. C. Bell	June 22	July 31
Mankato	State Normal School	C. H. Cooper	June 13	July 25
Maple Plain	Seventh Day Adventists' Northern Union Conference Summer School.	W. W. Ruble	July 10	Aug. 20
Minneapolis (920 Nicollet Ave.).	Ford Offices	James M. Ford	June 3	Aug. 29
Minneapolis (89 South Tenth St.).	Handicraft Guild Summer School of Design and Handicraft.			
Minneapolis (42 Eighth St. South).	Minneapolis School of Music, Oratory, and Dramatic Art.	Wm. H. Pontius; Chas. M. Holt.	June 10	Aug. 8
Minneapolis	Summer School for Library Training (Minnesota Public Library Commission).	Clara F. Baldwin	June 16	July 25
Do	University of Minnesota	George F. James	do	Do.
Montgomery	County Teachers' Training School	Julius Boraas, M. L		
Moorhead	State Normal School	Frank A. Weld	June 16	July 31
Morris	Teachers' Training School (West Central School of Agriculture).	E. C. Higbie, M. A	June 1	Sept. 1
Northfield	County Teachers' Training School	F. J. Sperry		
Redwood Falls	do	Charles E. Young		
Rochester	do	Jno. L. Silvernale		
St. Cloud	State Normal School	W. A. Shoemaker	June 10	July 25
St. James	County Teachers' Training School	C. E. Payne		
St. Paul	College of Agriculture	A. F. Woods	June 16	July 26
St. Paul (University Farm).	State Teachers' Training School	do	do	Do.
St. Paul	Globe Business College	J. O. Weaver	June 15	Sept. 1
Thief River Falls	County Teachers' Training School	J. H. Hay		
Wadena	do	Wm. Angus		
Wells	do	R. A. Kent		
Winona	Winona Business College	C. F. Koehler, M. A	June 1	Aug. 17
Do	State Normal School	G. E. Maxwell	June 17	Aug. 1
Winthrop	County Teachers' Training School	J. A. Cederstrom		
MISSISSIPPI.				
Agricultural College	Mississippi Agricultural College			
Brookhaven	Summer Normal (Whitworth College).	B. T. Schumpert	June 9	July 5
Clinton	Clinton State Normal	J. W. Provine	June 10	Do.
Newton	Newton Summer Normal	W. C. Williams	June 9	July 4
Sherman	Mississippi Normal Institute			
University	University of Mississippi	Andrew A. Kincannon	June 9	July 6
Wiggins	Coast Normal	W. F. Bond	July 20	Aug. 14
Winona	Winona Normal	O. A. Shaw	July 14	Aug. 8
MISSOURI.				
Cameron	Missouri Wesleyan College	W. C. Urban, A. M	June 9	Aug. 16
Cape Girardeau	State Normal School	W. S. Dearmont	do	Do.
Columbia	University of Missouri	W. W. Charters, Ph. D.	June 12	Aug. 15
Kirksville	State Normal School	John R. Kirk	May 27	Aug. 8
La Grange	La Grange College	Ransom Harvey	June 9	Aug. 17
Marshall	Missouri Valley College	I. N. Evrard	June 2	Aug. 9
Maryville	State Normal School	H. K. Taylor	May 30	Aug. 10
St. Louis	Forest Park University Summer School of Music.	Anna S. Cairns	June 1	Aug. 1
Do	St. Louis University Medical School	Chas. H. Neilson, Ph. D., M. D.	June 10	July 22
Springfield	State Normal School	W. T. Carrington	May 26	Aug. 1
Warrensburg	do	W. J. Hawkins, LL. D.	June 3	Aug. 9
Warrenton	Central Wesleyan College	Henry Voshall, A. M	May 26	Aug. 2
MONTANA.				
Butte	Butte Business College Summer Normal.	Edwin Koch	June 1	Sept. 1
Dillon	Montana State Normal College	Joseph E. Monroe	June 10	Aug. 29

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
MONTANA—contd.				
Helena	Parochial School Institute (Mount St. Charles College).	J. L. McMullen	July 10	Aug. 15
Do	Sisters of Mercy Summer School (St. Vincent Academy).	Sister M. Bertrama		
Missoula	Biological Station Summer School	M. J. Elrod, Ph. D	June 16	Aug. 1
Do	University of Montana	G. F. Reynolds	June 10	July 20
NEBRASKA.				
Alliance	State Junior Normal	W. R. Pate	June 2	July 26
Alma	do	C. W. McMichael	do	Do
Bellevue	Bellevue College	W. H. Nicholl	June 11	Aug. 10
Bethany	Cotner University	R. L. Hoff	June 10	Aug. 2
Broken Bow	State Junior Normal	Sutton H. Martin	June 2	July 25
Chadron	State Normal School	Joseph Sparks	do	Do.
Fremont	Fremont College	W. H. Clemmons		
Geneva	State Junior Normal	R. W. Eaton	June 2	July 25
Kearney	State Normal School	A. O. Thomas	do	Do.
Lincoln	University of Nebraska	A. A. Reed	June 13	Aug. 8
McCook	State Junior Normal	W. T. Davis	June 2	July 25
North Platte	do	Wilson Tout	do	Do.
O'Neill	do	C. A. Mohrman	do	Do.
Peru	State Normal School	D. W. Hayes	do	Do.
University Place	Nebraska Wesleyan University	B. E. McProud	June 3	July 29
Valentine	State Junior Normal	G. W. Eaton	June 2	July 25
Wayne	State Normal School	U. S. Conn	do	Do.
York	York College	Wm. E. Schell	June 16	Aug. 8
NEW HAMPSHIRE.				
Ashland	Camp Algonquin for Boys	Edwin De Meritte (815 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.).	June 24	Sept. 25
Enfield	Camp Rockland (Rockland Military Academy).	Elmer E. French, A. M., (West Lebanon, N. H.).	July 6	Sept. 1
Francestown	Camp Fairweather for Girls	Matilda D. Fairweather (141 Green St., New Haven, Conn.).	July 3	Aug. 28
Hanover	Dartmouth College	W. V. Bingham	do	Aug. 15
Petersboro	Sargent School Camp for Girls	D. A. Sargent (8 Everett St., Cambridge, Mass.).	June 1	Sept. 29
Pike	Aloha Club for Girls	E. L. Gulick (Lyme Road, Hanover, N. H.	July 4	Sept. 4
Do	Camp Moosilauke for Boys	Virgil Prettyman, Pd. D. (Prin. of Horace Mann High School, New York City).	June 26	Aug. 28
Plymouth	State Normal School	Ernest L. Silver	July 8	Aug. 30
South Chatham	Mrs. Hill's Summer School of Cookery.	Janet M. Hill	July 9	Aug. 5
West Swanzey	Wawona Camp for Boys	Oscar E. Bourne	June 25	Sept. 5
NEW JERSEY.				
Allenhurst	Rand School for Tutoring	Edwin W. Rard	June 15	Oct. 1
Bloomfield	Silver Lake Summer Vacation School.	George Morris		
Do	Snell Summer Art Class [1]	Maurice C. Boyd	July 12	Aug. 25
Cape May City	School of Agriculture, Industrial Art and Science.	T. D. Sensor	July 1	July 31
Hoboken	Stevens Institute of Technology		Aug. 18	Sept. 13
Paterson	Y. M. C. A. Summer School		July 7	Aug. 16
Vineland	Training School for Teachers of Feeble Minded Girls and Boys.	E. R. Johnstone	do	Do.
NEW MEXICO.				
Albuquerque	University of New Mexico	John D. Clark		
Las Vegas	New Mexico Normal University	Frank H. H. Roberts	June 3	July 27
Do	San Miguel Teacher's Normal Institute.	Leona Logue	Aug. 5	Aug. 31
Mountainair	Chautauqua Summer School	Chas. L. Burt	Aug. 16	Aug. 30
Silver City	New Mexico Normal School	C. M. Light, Pd. D	May 29	July 18

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[1] Foreign location.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
NEW YORK.				
Albany	State Library Summer School	James I. Wyer		
Auburn	Auburn Summer School in Theology.	George B. Stewart	July 7	July 19
Do	Titus Summer School of Dancing	Pauline L. Titus	July 1	July 30
Bearsville	Summer School of Figure Painting.	Dewing Woodward	June 2	Oct. 25
Brooklyn	Adelphi College	A. G. Fradenburgh	July 7	Aug. 17
Do	Euclid School	C. H. Best	July 1	Aug. 31
Buffalo	Vacation schools (city public schools).	Geo. E. Smith	do	Aug. 1 $
Chautauqua	Chautauqua Summer Schools	Percy H. Boynton	July 5	Aug. 15
Cold Spring Harbor	Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences Biological Laboratory.	Chas. Davenport	June 25	Aug. 5
Cornwall-on-Hudson	New York Military Academy	Sebastian Jones	June 15	Sept. 1
Cortland	Cortland Summer School	Luke J. McEvoy	July 11	Aug. 15
Diamond Point	Camp Wabanaki for Girls	Grace G. Norton (27 West Eleventh St., New York City).	July 1	Sept. 1
Franklin	Marsland Summer School	W. S. Marsland, East Rockaway, N. Y.	do	Aug. 29
Ithaca	Cornell University	G. P. Bristol	July 7	Aug. 15
Manlius	St. John's Summer Cavalry School.	Wm. Verbeck, M. A.	(1)	
New Rochelle	College of New Rochelle	M. M. Ignatius	July 6	Aug. 14
New York (American Fine Arts Building).	Art Students League Summer School.	Edward Dufner	June 4	Sept. 20
New York (7 West Forty-second St.).	Chalif Normal School of Dancing	Louis H. Chalif	June 1	July 27
New York	Chase Art Class in Europe	C. P. Townsley (180 Claremont Ave.).		
Do	Columbia University	James C. Egbert	July 7	Aug. 15
Do	Country School for Girls	Misses Bangs and Whiton (Riverdale Ave. and Two hundred and fifty-second St., West).	June 8	Sept. 14
New York (501 Fifth Avenue).	Massee Summer School	W. W. Massee, Ph. D.	June 2	Sept. 25
New York (One hundred and ninth St.). and Amsterdam Ave.).	National Academy of Design	Geo. W. Maynard	do	Aug. 29
New York	National Training School (Y. W. C. A.).	Elizabeth Wilson, A. M.	July 5	Aug. 16
New York (105 East Twenty-second St.).	New York School of Philanthropy.	Carl Kelsey	June 16	July 25
Do	New York School of Philanthropy (charity organization institute).		May 1	May 31
New York	New York University	James E. Lough	July 1	Aug. 12
New York (358 Fifth Ave.).	Prang Summer School			
New York (7 West Twenty-eighth St.).	River School of Arts and Crafts	Mira Burr Edson	June 15	Sept. 15
Rochester	Mechanics Institute	C. B. Gibson	June 23	Aug. 15
Do	Western New York Institution for Deaf Mutes, Vacation School.	Z. F. Westervelt, LL. D.	June 21	Sept. 9
Silver Bay	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	T. B. Penfield, Ph. D.	Aug. 1	Aug. 30
Syracuse	Syracuse University	Edgar C. Morris	July 7	Aug. 15
Troy	Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute	Palmer C. Ricketts, E. D., L. L. D.		
Woodstock	Thatcher Summer School of Metal Work.	Edward Thatcher	July 5	Aug. 17
NORTH CAROLINA.				
Blowing Rock	Blowing Rock Art School	Elliot Daingerfield (222 South Central Park, New York City).	June 20	Sept. 25
Boone	Appalachian Training School	B. B. Dougherty	June 3	July 18
Chapel Hill	University of North Carolina	N. W. Walker	June 10	July 20
Greensboro	Summer School for Teachers (A. and M. College for Colored Race).	S. B. Jones	June 23	Aug. 2
Greenville	East Carolina Teachers' Training School.	Robt. H. Wright	June 17	Aug. 9
Wake Forest	Wake Forest College School of Law.	N. Y. Gulley	June 5	Aug. 26

[1] No session in 1913.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
NORTH DAKOTA.				
Agricultural College	Cass County Teachers' Training School.	J. G. Halland	June 10	July 3
Ellendale	State Normal and Industrial School.	A. S. Kingsford	July 20	Sept. 1
Mayville	State Normal School	Thos. A. Hillyer	July 1	Aug. 8
Napoleon	Logan County Teachers' Training School.			
University	University of North Dakota (College Section).	A. J. Ladd	June 16	July 26
Do	University of North Dakota (Elementary Section).	C. C. Schmidt, M. S.	June 24	Do.
Valley City	State Normal School	Geo. A. McFarland	June 28	Aug. 10
Velva	Northwestern Summer School	A. G. Crane	July 1	Aug. 6
Wahpeton	Training School for Teachers (State School of Science).	Fred E. Smith	June 20	July 20
OHIO.				
Ada	Ohio Northern University	C. C. McCracken	June 10	Aug. 8
Alliance	Mount Union-Scio College	W. H. McMaster, D. D.	June 16	Aug. 1
Ashland	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	H. A. Cooper	July 7	Aug. 15
Athens	Ohio University and State Normal College.	Henry G. Williams	June 23	Aug. 1
Cedar Point	Lake Laboratory (Ohio State University).	Herbert Osborn	June 16	July 25
Cincinnati	Art Academy of Cincinnati	J. H. Gest	do	Aug. 23
Cleveland	Y. W. C. A. Summer Classes	Jeanette Bullis	June 1	July 31
Columbus	Ohio State University	Karl D. Swartzel	June 16	Aug. 8
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	A. C. D. Metzger	June 18	July 27
Dayton	College and Teachers' Preparatory School.			
Defiance	Defiance College	P. W. McReynolds	June 16	Aug. 8
Greenville	Commercial Normal College Institute.	Clarence Balthaser	June 1	July 31
Hamilton	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	Chas. H. Lake	June 15	Aug. 10
Kingsville	Camp Wyndcroft for Girls	Celia C. Luce (Glen Ridge, N. J.).	July 1	Sept. 1
Lebanon	Lebanon University			
Lorain	Y. M. C. A. Summer School		June 23	Aug. 15
Marietta	Marietta College	W. H. Maurer		
Mount Vernon	Mount Vernon College			
New Concord	Muskingum College	J. G. Lowery	June 16	Aug. 8
Oberlin	Oberlin College	C. N. Cole	June 20	Do.
Oxford	Miami University	H. C. Minnich	do	Aug. 1
Rio Grande	Rio Grande College	O. T. Jacobs	June 23	Do.
Springfield	Wittenberg College	T. Bruce Birch	June 26	Aug. 4
Tiffin	Heidelberg University	Henry L. Beam, A. M.	June 17	July 25
Westerville	Otterbein University	Walter G. Clippinger, D. D.	do	Do.
West Lafayette	West Lafayette College	A. F. Hess	do	Aug. 1
Wooster	Wooster Summer School	Walter H. Aiken	June 20	Do.
Do	Wooster University	J. H. Dickason, A. M.	June 23	Aug. 15
Yellow Springs	Antioch College	S. D. Fess	June 16	Aug. 1
OKLAHOMA.				
Ada	East Central State Normal School	Chas. W. Briles	May 25	Aug. 2
Alva	Northwestern State Normal School.	Grant B. Grumbine	do	Do.
Durant	Southeastern State Normal School.	E. D. Murdaugh	May 28	July 30
Edmond	Central State Normal School	Charles Evans, M. A.	do	Do.
Norman	University of Oklahoma	J. S. Buchanan	June 15	Aug. 10
Stillwater	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	J. H. Bowers	June 3	July 11
Tahlequah	Northeastern State Normal School	W. E. Gill	May 26	Aug. 1
Weatherford	Southwestern State Normal School.	U. J. Griffith	May 27	Do.
OREGON.				
Albany	Albany College			
Corvallis	Oregon Agricultural College	E. D. Ressler	June 16	July 27
Eugene	University of Oregon	Joseph Schafer, Ph. D.	June 25	Aug. 3
Gladstone	Willamette Valley Chautauqua	Harvey E. Cross (Oregon City, Oreg.).	July 9	July 22
McMinnville	McMinnville College			
Monmouth	Oregon Normal School	J. H. Ackerman	June 23	Aug. 19
Salem	Capital Normal School	J. J. Kraps	Apr. 1	June 18

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
PENNSYLVANIA.				
Beaver Falls	Geneva College Normal School	Harry H. Wylie	June 23	Aug. 4
Collegeville	Ursinus College	W. A. Kline	...do...	Aug. 1
Concordville	Maplewood Institute	J. C. Shortlidge		
Fort Washington	Darby School of Painting	Hugh H. Breckenridge	June 9	July 26
Grove City	Grove City College	I. C. Ketler, Ph. D., D. D., LL. D.	June 17	Aug. 22
Huntingdon	Juniata College	Chas. C. Ellis, Ph. D.	June 30	Aug. 8
Lancaster	Franklin and Marshall Academy	T. G. Helm, A. M. E. M. Hartman, A. M.	June 16	July 25
Meadville	Institute for Religious Education	L. W. Mason	June 25	July 8
Mount Gretna	Pennsylvania Chautauqua Summer School for Teachers.	W. S. Steele, A. M.	June 30	July 28
Muncy	Lycoming County Normal	Sylvester B. Dunlap	July 2	Aug. 30
Myerstown	Albright College	J. F. Dunlap	June 16	July 28
Philadelphia	Central Educational Institute (Y. M. C. A.)	Richard E. Wilson	June 20	Sept. 1
Philadelphia (1711 Green St.).	Pennsylvania Orthopædic Institute and School of Mechano-Therapy.	Max J. Walter, M. D.	July 1	Oct. 1
Philadelphia (1107 N. 41st St.).	The School of Sloyd	Mary B. Loos	July 7	Aug. 16
Philadelphia	Temple University Business School.	M. F. Stauffer	July 1	Sept. 1
Do	University of Pennsylvania	A. Duncan Yocum	...do...	Aug. 10
Pittsburgh (Mt. Oliver)	King's School of Oratory	Byron W. King	June 16	July 18
Pittsburgh	University of Pittsburgh	S. B. Linhart	June 30	Sept. 6
Scranton	Y. M. C. A. Vacation School for Boys.	J. H. Dague	...do...	Aug. 14
Selinsgrove	Susquehanna University	J. I. Woodruff, Litt. D.	June 16	Aug. 8
South Bethlehem	Lehigh University	Henry S. Drinker	July 23	Sept. 9
State College	Pennsylvania Free Library Commission School for Library Workers.	Annie A. MacDonald	June 23	Aug. 5
Do	Pennsylvania State College	S. E. Weber, Ph. D.	...do...	Aug. 1
Swarthmore	Swarthmore Preparatory School	A. H. Tomlinson	June 15	Sept. 15
Washington	Washington and Jefferson College	H. F. Allen, Ph. D.	June 23	Aug. 2
Westchester	State Normal School	G. M. Philips, Ph. D.	June 25	July 27
RHODE ISLAND.				
Kingston	Rhode Island State College	A. E. Stew		
Narragansett Pier	Summer School for Sunday School Teachers.	Willard B. Wilson (Butler's Exchange, Providence).	July 5	July 12
Providence (11 Waterman St.).	Rhode Island School of Design	Agustus F. Rose	June 30	Aug. 2
Providence	Summer School of Methods in Church Work (Narragansett Young People's Assembly).			
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	M. D. Carroll	July 9	Aug. 24
SOUTH CAROLINA.				
Orangeburg	State Colored College Summer School for Teachers.[1]	R. S. Wilkinson	June 23	July 18
Rock Hill	Winthrop Normal and Industrial College.	D. B. Johnson	June 18	July 30
Spartanburg	Wofford College Fitting School	J. M. Steadman, jr., A. M.	June 20	Aug. 15
SOUTH DAKOTA.				
Aberdeen	Northern Normal and Industrial School.	W. E. Johnson	June 9	July 19
Brookings	South Dakota State College of Agriculture.	A. A. Brigham	June 18	July 2
Huron	Huron College	C. H. French, D. D.	June 17	July 26
Mitchell	Dakota Wesleyan University	G. E. Marker	June 9	July 18
Redfield	Redfield College	H. W. Whitten	June 17	Aug. 15
Yankton	Yankton College	G. H. Scott	June 9	July 18
TENNESSEE.				
Cumberland Gap	Lincoln Memorial University	T. B. Ford	May 14	Aug. 10
Knoxville	Summer School of the South	Brown Ayres, LL. D.	June 24	Aug. 1

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
TEXAS.				
Austin	University of Texas	Wm. S. Sutton, LL. D.	June 14	July 31
Belton	Baylor Female College	W. M. W. Splawn	June 3	July 20
Big Spring	Summer Normal Institute	J. W. Dees		
Bonham	Tri-County Summer Normal	R. M. Parker	June 10	Aug. 1
Brady	Summer Normal	B. W. Miller	June 2	July 10
Bronson	Santa Fe Summer Normal	G. A. Baker	June 4	July 12
Brownwood	Summer Normal Institute			
Cameron	do			
Canyon	West Texas State Normal College	A. B. Cousins	June 5	Aug. 25
Cisco	Britton's Training School	O. C. Britton	June 1	Aug. 1
Cleburne	Summer Normal School	R. G. Hall	June 15	Do.
Commerce	East Texas Normal College			
Corpus Christi	South Texas Summer Normal	C. G. Hallmark	June 1	Aug. 1
Corsicana	County Summer Normal	S. H. Whitley	do	Do.
Crockett	Summer Normal[1]	J. W. Hogg	June 25	July 25
Dallas	Dallas County Summer Normal	S. M. Lloyd	June 15	Aug. 1
Do	State Normal Institute[1]	N. W. Harllee, A. M	do	July 30
Do	Y. M. C. A. Summer School	Geo. W. Coley	do	Aug. 4
Denton	College of Industrial Arts	W. B. Bizzell, D. C. L.	June 3	July 14
Do	North Texas State Normal College			
Fort Worth	Polytechnic College	W. Cullen Bryant	June 1	July 15
Gatesville	Summer Normal	J. M. Witcher		
Georgetown	Southwestern University	J. H. Reedy, A. M	June 11	July 27
Gilmer	Summer Normal	S. L. Jones	June 6	Aug. 2
Greenville	County Summer Normal	L. C. Gee, A. M	June 1	Aug. 12
Do	North Texas Summer Normal[1]	T. W. Pratt	June 3	July 12
Houston	Summer Normal	W. G. Smiley	do	Aug. 10
Huntsville	Sam Houston State Normal	H. F. Estill	June 3	July 27
Kerrville	Summer Normal	A. W. Evans		
Knox City	do			
Lampasas	Central Texas Summer Normal	C. E. Thomas	June 20	Aug. 1
Livingston	Summer Normal	W. M. Anderson	May 27	July 5
Lubbock	do	J. K. Wester	June 1	July 15
Lufkin	East Texas Summer Normal	M. B. Davis	do	July 7
McKinney	Summer Normal	S. C. Stephens		
Meridian	do	C. L. Batson		
Mineola	do			
New Boston	Northeast Texas Summer Normal	H. C. Somerville	June 11	Aug. 2
Palestine	Summer Normal	C. F. Carr	June 15	Aug. 5
San Angelo	do	W. L. Hughes		
San Antonio	Lady of the Lake Academy	P. H. Underwood	June 21	Aug. 3
Do	Summer Normal	C. A. Arnold	June 18	Aug. 1
San Marcos	Southwest Texas State Normal	C. E. Evans, M. A	June 3	July 31
Seguin	Summer Normal[1]	S. W. Thompson	June 1	July 10
Sherman	Summer Normal	J. C. Pyle	June 2	Do.
Stamford	Stamford College	L. T. Cunningham	June 10	Aug. 1
Stephenville	John Tarleton College			
Sulphur Springs	Hopkins County Summer Normal	J. E. Jennings		
Waco	Baylor University	W. W. Phelan, Ph. D.	June 9	Aug. 29
Do	Paul Quinn College[1]			
Waxahachie	Trinity University	S. L. Hornbeak, Ph. D.	June 9	Aug. 3
Weatherford	Summer Normal	W. O. De Wees	June 1	Aug. 1
Woodville	do	R. P. Gibbs		
Yoakum	do			
UTAH.				
Logan	Agricultural College of Utah	George Thomas, Ph.D.	June 13	July 25
Provo	Brigham Young University	G. H. Brimhall	June 4	Aug. 24
Salt Lake City	University of Utah	Wm. M. Stewart	June 9	July 25
Do	Y. M. C. A. Vacation School	J. H. Coombs	do	Do.
VERMONT.				
Burlington	University of Vermont	J. F. Messenger, Ph.D.	July 9	Aug. 17
Castleton	State Normal School	Chas. A. Adams	do	July 20
Fairlee	Aloha Camp for Girls	Edw. L. Gulick	July 2	Sept. 2
Johnson	State Normal School	Lyman R. Allen	July 8	Aug. 1
Middlebury	Middlebury College	Raymond McFarland, A. M.	July 1	Aug. 8
Northfield	Norwich University School for Engineers.	A. E. Winslow	June 26	Sept. 12
Poultney	Camp Kiamesha Tutoring School	Frank J. Davey, A. M.	June 24	Sept. 6
Rutland	Summer School for Teachers			
St. Albans Bay	Kamp Kill Kare	Ralph F. Perry (Pennington, N. J.).	July 1	Sept. 1

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[1] Negro school.

IX.—Summer School Directors—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
VIRGINIA.				
Cambria	Christiansburg Summer Normal[1]	E. A. Long	July 1	Aug. 1
Charlottesville (University).	University of Virginia	Chas. G. Maphis	June 24	Aug. 6
Danville	State Summer Normal[1]			
Dublin	College of William and Mary	J. W. Ritchie	June 20	Aug. 15
Emory	Emory and Henry College	J. L. McGhee, Ph. D	June 16	Aug. 16
Do	State Summer Normal	S. R. McChesney	July 1	Aug. 1
Farmville	do	J. L. Jarman	do	Do.
Fredericksburg	do	E. H. Russell	do	Do.
Hampton	Normal and Agricultural Institute[1]	Geo. P. Phenix	(2)	
Harrisonburg	State Normal School	Julian A. Burruss	June 18	Aug. 30
Manassas	Manassas Industrial School[1]	Leslie P. Hill, A. M	July 1	Aug. 1
Martinsville	State Normal Institute	N. P. Painter	do	Do.
Petersburg	Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute.[1]	J. H. Johnston	June 9	July 4
WASHINGTON.				
Bellingham	State Normal School	E. A. Bond	June 9	July 30
Centralia	Ellensburg State Normal School	W. E. Wilson	June 20	Do.
Cheney	State Normal School	J. E. Buchanan	June 2	July 31
Ellensburg	do		June 8	Aug. 1
Friday Harbor	Puget Sound Marine Station (University of Washington).	Trevor Kincaid	June 24	Aug. 3
North Yakima	Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. Vacation School.	W. G. McMorran	July 7	Aug. 15
Olympia	Olympia Summer School	B. R. McClelland, M. S.		
Pullman	Washington State College	Alvin E. Evans	June 16	July 25
Seattle	Northwest Summer School	Chas. Fagan	July 14	Aug. 22
Do	University of Washington	Frederick A. Osborn	June 27	Aug. 3
Do	Y. M. C. A. Vacation School for Boys.	Charles Meteker	do	Aug. 15
Spokane	Blair Business College	H. C. Blair	June 15	Do.
Do	Jenkins Institute (Y. M. C. A. school).	E. A. Potter	do	Do.
Do	Summer High and Normal School	Henry M. Hart	June 16	Aug. 2
Tacoma	University of Puget Sound	J. C. Zeller, M. A	June 23	Do.
Do	Y. M. C. A. Vacation School	Edgar H. Burwell	June 17	Aug. 3
WEST VIRGINIA.				
Athens	Concord State Normal	F. A. Foster	June 17	July 25
Bethany	Bethany College	T. E. Cramblet, LL. D.	June 24	Aug. 5
Buckhannon	West Virginia Wesleyan College	Carl G. Doney	June 22	Aug. 1
Elkins	Davis and Elkins College	Jas. E. Allen	June 15	Aug. 10
Fairmont	State Normal School	Joseph Rosier	June 20	July 27
Huntington	Marshall College	L. J. Corbly, M. A	June 11	Aug. 8
Institute	State Summer School for Colored Teachers.	Byrd Prillerman, A. M.	June 16	July 25
Morgantown	West Virginia University	Waitman Barbe, Litt. D.	do	Aug. 15
Salem	Salem College	C. B. Clark	June 23	Aug. 1
Shepherdstown	Shepherd College State Normal	Thos. C. Miller	June 15	July 20
WISCONSIN.				
Beaver Dam	Hillcrest School for Girls	Sadie M. Davison	June 1	Sept. 12
Eau Claire	Eau Claire Dressmaking School	Mrs. E. A. Hodge	do	Sept. 1
Do	Professional School for Teachers	C. E. Patzer	June 26	Aug. 3
Janesville	Rock County Training School	Frank J. Lowth	June 25	Do.
La Crosse	State Normal School	F. A. Cotton	do	Do.
Madison	University of Wisconsin	S. H. Goodnoght	June 23	Aug. 1
Do	Wisconsin Free Library Commission Library School.	Matthew S. Dudgeon	June 22	Aug. 3
Menomonie	Stout Institute	Geo. F. Buxton	July 28	Aug. 29
Milwaukee	State Normal School	W. H. Cheever	June 30	Aug. 8
Do	Y. M. C. A. Vacation School	S. C. Horton	June 25	Aug. 6
Monroe	Green County Training School	C. H. Dietz	do	Aug. 1
New London	Waupaca County Training School	C. B. Stanley	June 16	July 25
Oconto	Professional School for Teachers	Asa M. Royce	June 30	Aug. 8
Oshkosh	State Normal School	M. H. Small, Ph. D	July 1	Aug. 10
Platteville	do	E. P. Reynolds	do	Aug. 8
Reedsburg	Sauk County Training School	W. E. Smith	June 23	Aug. 4
Richland Center	Richland County Training School	A. A. Thomson	June 20	July 30

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[1] Negro school.

[2] Closed for repairs in 1913.

IX.—SUMMER SCHOOL DIRECTORS—Continued.

Location.	Summer school or affiliated institution.	Director or principal in 1912.	Probable date of session of 1913.	
			Opening.	Close.
WISCONSIN—continued.				
River Falls	State Normal School	W. S. Welles	June 30	Aug. 8
Stevens Point	.....do	F. S. Hyer	...do	Do.
Superior	.....do	James A. Merrill	...do	Aug. 11
Viroqua	Vernon County Training School	A. E. Smith	June 23	Aug. 1
Whitewater	State Normal School	A. A. Upham	June 30	Aug. 8
Williams Bay	Y. M. C. A. Institute and Training School.	Frank H. Burt, LL. D.	June 25	July 23
WYOMING.				
Laramie	University of Wyoming	J. O. Creager, A. M.	June 16	July 25

X.—AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, NATIONAL AND SECTIONAL.

The following list shows, first, the name of the association; second, the name and address of the president; third, the name and address of the secretary; fourth, the place and date of the next meeting.

American association for the advancement of agricultural teaching: Kirk L. Hatch, Madison, Wis.; W. H. French, East Lansing, Mich.; Atlanta, Ga., November 12, 1912.

American association for the advancement of science, Section L: J. McKeen Cattell, Columbia university, New York, N. Y.; C. Riborg Mann, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; Cleveland, Ohio, December 30, 1912, to January 3, 1913.

American association of college registrars: W. A. Hervey, Columbia university, New York, N. Y.; Mary Scott, Galesburg, Ill.

American association of farmers' institute workers: Franklin Dye, Trenton, N. J.; John Hamilton, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.; Atlanta, Ga., November 11-13, 1912.

American association to promote the teaching of speech to the deaf: A. L. E. Crouter, Philadelphia, Pa.; Z. F. Westervelt, 1545 St. Paul Street, Rochester, N. Y.

American bar association, Section of legal education: Walter G. Smith, Philadelphia, Pa.; Charles M. Hepburn, Indiana university law school, Bloomington, Ind.

American federation of the teachers of the mathematical and natural sciences: C. Riborg Mann, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; Eugene R. Smith, The Park school, Baltimore, Md.; Cleveland, Ohio, December, 1912.

American home economics association: Isabel Bevier, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.; Benjamin R. Andrews, Teachers college, Columbia university, New York, N. Y.; Boston, Mass., December 31, 1912, and Ithaca, N. Y., June, 1913.

American institute of instruction: Charles F. C. Whitcomb, Brockton, Mass.; Josiah W. Taylor, Augusta, Me.; probably North Conway, N. H., July, 1913.

American instructors of the deaf: Edward M. Gallaudet, Hartford, Conn.; Herbert E. Day, Gallaudet college, Washington, D. C.

American medical association, Council on medical education: Arthur D. Bevan, chairman, Chicago, Ill.; N. P. Colwell, 535 Dearborn avenue, Chicago, Ill.; Chicago, Ill., February 24-25, 1913.

American nature-study society: B. M. Davis, Oxford, Ohio; Elliot R. Downing, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; Cleveland, Ohio, December 31, 1912, to January 2, 1913.

American physical education association: R. Tait McKenzie, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; James H. McCurdy, International Y. M. C. A. Training school, Springfield, Mass.; April, 1913.

American school hygiene association: David L. Edsall, Mattapan, Mass.; Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York, New York, N. Y.; Buffalo, N. Y., August 25-30, 1913.

American school peace league: James H. Van Sickle, Springfield, Mass.; Fannie F. Andrews, 405 Marlborough street, Boston, Mass.; at time and place of meeting of the National education association, Salt Lake City, Utah, July, 1913.

American society for extension of university teaching: Henry L. Jayne, 505 Chestnut street, Philadelphia, Pa.; Charles D. Atkins, 730 Witherspoon building, Philadelphia, Pa.; Philadelphia, Pa., May, 1913.

American society of superintendents of training schools for nurses: Mary C. Wheeler, 127 N. Dearborn street, Chicago, Ill.; Jessie E. Catton, Springfield, Mass.; Atlantic City, N. J., June, 1913.

Association of American agricultural colleges and experiment stations, Section on college work and administration: J. H. Connell, Stillwater, Okla.; E. D. Sanderson, University of West Virginia, Morgantown, W. Va.; Atlanta, Ga., November 13-15, 1912.

Association of American law schools: Henry M. Bates, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Walter W. Cook, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; meets with the American bar association.

Association of American medical colleges: Egbert Le Fevre, New York, N. Y.; Fred. C. Zapffe, 3431 Lexington street, Chicago, Ill.

Association of American universities: Representative of Leland Stanford junior university, Stanford university, Cal.; Representative of Harvard university, Cambridge, Mass.; Philadelphia, Pa., November 7–8, 1912.

Association of college officers of the New England colleges: President of the entertaining college and a secretary pro tempore appointed at the meeting; probably Tufts college, Mass., 1912.

Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the Middle States and Maryland: William H. Maxwell, New York, N. Y.; Arthur H. Quinn, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; Philadelphia, Pa., November 29–30, 1912.

Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the Southern States: J. H. Kirkland, Vanderbilt university, Nashville, Tenn.; Bert E. Young, Vanderbilt university, Nashville, Tenn.; Spartanburg, S. C., November 14–15, 1912.

Association of collegiate alumnæ: Mrs. Alexander F. Morrison, San Francisco, Cal.; Mrs. Samuel F. Clarke, Williamstown, Mass.; Ann Arbor, Mich., November 11–16, 1912.

Association of history teachers of the Middle States and Maryland: Edgar Dawson; Henry Johnson, Teachers college, Columbia university, New York, N. Y.; Philadelphia, Pa., November 29–30, 1912.

Association of mathematical teachers in New England: Archibald V. Galbraith, Middlesex school, Concord, Mass.; H. D. Gaylord, 104 Hemenway street, Boston, Mass.; Boston, Mass., December 7, 1912.

Association of Methodist college presidents: John H. Race, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tenn.; Herbert Welch, Ohio Wesleyan university, Delaware, Ohio; Lincoln, Nebr.

Association of Southern State superintendents of public instruction: W. H. Smith, Jackson, Miss.; H. L. McCleskey, Hazlehurst, Miss.

Association of Southern States rural school supervisors: W. K. Tate, Columbia, S. C.; L. J. Hanifan, Charleston, W. Va.; Washington, D. C., January 20, 1913.

Association of teachers of mathematics in the Middle States and Maryland: Isaac J. Schwatt, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; Howard F. Hart, Montclair, N. J.; Spring, 1913.

Catholic educational association: Thomas J. Shahan, Catholic university, Washington, D. C.; F. W. Howard, 1651 E. Main street, Columbus, Ohio.

Central association of science and mathematics teachers: Herbert E. Cobb, Lewis institute, Chicago, Ill.; C. E. Spicer, Joliet, Ill.; Evanston, Ill., November 29–30, 1912.

Classical association of the Atlantic States: B. W. Mitchell, Philadelphia, Pa.; Charles Knapp, Columbia university, New York, N. Y.

Classical association of the Middle West and South: Grove E. Barber, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.; H. J. Barton, University of Illinois, Champaign, Ill.; probably Indianapolis, Ind., April, 1913.

Classical association of the Pacific Northwest: Frederic S. Dunn, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oreg.; Evan T. Sage, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash., Portland, Oreg., November, 1912.

Conference for education in the South: Robert C. Ogden, New York, N. Y.; A. P. Bourland, Southern building, Washington, D. C.; probably Richmond, Va., April, 1913.

Conference of chief school officers of the United States: A. C. Nelson, chairman, executive committee, Salt Lake City, Utah; Boise, Idaho, October 14–15, 1912.

Conference of church workers in State universities: J. C. Baker, Urbana, Ill.; Wallace C. Payne, Lawrence, Kans.; Lawrence, Kans., March, 1913.

Dental faculties association of American universities: Eugene H. Smith, Harvard university, Dental school, Cambridge, Mass.; Edward C. Kirk, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; probably Boston, Mass., 1913.

Eastern art and manual training teachers' association: Alvin E. Dodd, Boston, Mass.; T. R. Coggeshall, Girard college, Philadelphia, Pa.; probably New York, N. Y.

Eastern commercial teachers' association: E. H. Eldredge, Simmons college, Boston, Mass.; Frank E. Lakey, English high school, Boston, Mass.; Atlantic City, N. J., Easter week, 1913.

Farmers' educational cooperative union of America: O. P. Ford, McFall, Ala.; T. J. Kennedy, Birmingham, Ala.

Federation of State teachers' associations: Charles S. Foos, Reading, Pa.; W. W. Remington, Denver, Colo.; at time and place of meeting of the National education association, Salt Lake City, Utah, July, 1913.

Inland Empire teachers' association: B. M. Watson, Spokane, Wash.; R. T. Hargreaves, chairman, executive committee, Spokane, Wash.; Spokane, Wash., April, 1913.

Institute of dental pedagogics: H. Edmund Friesell, 1206 Highland building, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Fred W. Gethro, 917 Marshall Field building, Chicago, Ill.; Pittsburgh, Pa., January 28–30, 1913.

Lake Mohonk conference of friends of the Indian and other dependent peoples: E. E. Brown, New York university, New York, N. Y.; Henry S. Haskins, Lake Mohonk, N. Y.; Lake Mohonk, N. Y., October 23–25, 1912.

Mississippi Valley historical association, Teachers section: A. H. Sanford, chairman, La Crosse, Wis.; Howard C. Hill, State normal school, Milwaukee, Wis.; Omaha, Nebr., Spring, 1913.

Modern language association of America: Charles H. Grandgent, Harvard university, Cambridge, Mass.; William G. Howard, Harvard university, Cambridge, Mass.; Philadelphia, Pa., December 26–28, 1912.

Music supervisor, national conference: Henrietta G. Baker, Baltimore, Md.; Helen Cook, Rochester, N. Y.; Rochester, N. Y., week of April 7, 1913.

Music teachers' national association: George C. Gow, Vassar college, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.; Allen Spencer, Kimball Hall, Chicago, Ill.; Poughkeepsie, N. Y., December 26-28, 1912.

National association for the study and education of exceptional children: A. Emil Schmitt, New York, N. Y.; Waldemar H. Groszmann, "Watchung Crest," Plainfield, N. J.; New York, N. Y., October 30-31, 1912.

National association of dental faculties: J. B. Willmott, Toronto, Canada; George E. Hunt, Indianapolis, Ind.; Kansas City, Mo., July 5, 1913.

National association of school accounting officers: Joseph A. McBride, Los Angeles, Cal.; William Dick, City Hall, Philadelphia, Pa.; probably at the time and place of meeting of the Department of superintendence of the National education association, Philadelphia, Pa., February 24-28, 1913.

National association of State universities in the United States of America: W. L. Bryan, Indiana university, Bloomington, Ind.; Guy Potter Benton, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.; Washington, D. C., November 18-19, 1912.

National association of teachers in colored schools: M. W. Dogan, Marshall, Texas; George W. Carry, Guthrie, Okla.; Little Rock, Ark., July, 1913.

National child labor committee: Felix Adler, chairman, 152 W. 77th street, New York, N. Y.; Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 E. 22d street, New York, N. Y.; New Orleans, La., February, 1913.

National commercial teachers' federation: F. M. Van Antwerp, Louisville, Ky.; Walter E. Ingersoll, Portland, Oreg.; Chicago, Ill., June or July, 1913.

National conference committee on standards of colleges and secondary schools: Wilson Farrand, vice-president and acting president, Newark, N. J.; Frederick C. Ferry, Williams college, Williamstown, Mass.; probably New York, N. Y., November, 1912.

National conference on the education of backward, truant, and delinquent children: George S. Addams, Cleveland, Ohio; Elmer L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.; Seattle, Wash., with National conference of charities and correction.

National congress of mothers: Mrs. Frederic Schoff, Philadelphia, Pa.; Mrs. Arthur A. Birney, 806 Loan and Trust building, Washington, D. C.; Boston, Mass., May 15-20, 1913.

National council of teachers of English: Fred N. Scott, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.; James F. Hosic, Chicago teachers college, Chicago, Ill.; Chicago, Ill., November 29-30, 1912.

National education association: E. T. Fairchild, Topeka, Kans.; D. W. Springer, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Salt Lake City, Utah, July, 1913.

National education association, Department of superintendence: F. B. Dyer, Cincinnati, Ohio; B. W. Torreyson, Little Rock, Ark.; Philadelphia, Pa., February 24-28, 1913.

National federation of college women: Mrs. William Oxley Thompson, Columbus, Ohio; Ida McKean, Laurel school, Cleveland, Ohio.

National German-American teachers' association (Nationaler deutsch-amerikanischer lehrerbund): H. H. Fick, Cincinnati, Ohio; Emil Kramer, 1334 Broadway, Cincinnati, Ohio; Toledo, Ohio, or Pittsburgh, Pa., July, 1913.

National kindergarten association: Edwin S. Marston; Dorothy Perkins, 1 Madison avenue, New York, N. Y.; New York, N. Y., November, 1912.

National league of compulsory education officials: William L. Bodine, Chicago, Ill.; John B. Quinn, St. Louis, Mo.; probably May, 1913.

National society for broader education: Guy C. Lee, Carlisle, Pa.; H. H. Langsdorf, Carlisle, Pa.; New York, N. Y., January 15, 1913.

National society for the promotion of industrial education: William C. Redfield, 141 Broadway, New York, N. Y.; C. A. Prosser, 20 W. 44th street, New York, N. Y.; Philadelphia, Pa., November, 1912.

National society for the study of education: James H. Van Sickle, Springfield, Mass.; S. Chester Parker, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; at the time and place of meeting of the Department of superintendence of the National education association, Philadelphia, Pa., February 24-28, 1913.

National society of college teachers of education: George F. James, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; Carter Alexander, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.; at the time and place of meeting of the Department of superintendence of the National education association, Philadelphia, Pa., February 24-28, 1913.

New England association of chemistry teachers: W. G. Whitman, Salem, Mass.; Ralph C. Bean, Girls' high school, Boston, Mass.; probably Boston, Mass., November, 1912.

New England association of college teachers of education: Edmund C. Sanford, Clark college, Worcester, Mass.; Henry W. Holmes, Harvard university, Cambridge, Mass.; Boston, Mass, November 29, 1912.

New England association of colleges and preparatory schools: Huber G. Buehler, Lakeville, Conn.; Walter B. Jacobs, Brown university, Providence, R. I.; New Haven, Conn., November 1-2, 1912.

New England association of superintendents: Arthur D. Call, Hartford, Conn.; David Snedden, Ford building, Boston, Mass.; Boston, Mass., November 8, 1912.

New England association of teachers of English: William A. Neilson, Harvard university, Cambridge, Mass.; Frank W. C. Hersey, 61 Oxford street, Cambridge, Mass.; Boston, Mass., December 14, 1912.

New England classical association: Charles U. Clark, New Haven, Conn.; Monroe N. Wetmore, acting secretary, Williams college, Williamstown, Mass.; probably Hanover, N. H., April, 1913.

New England high school commercial teachers association: Arthur J. Meredith, Salem, Mass.; W. O. Holden, Pawtucket, R. I.; Salem, Mass., October, 1912.

New England history teachers' association: W. Scott Ferguson, Cambridge, Mass.; Walter H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass.; Boston, Mass., December 28, 1912.

New England modern language association: Stephen P. Cabot, Newport, R. I.; Julius Tuckerman, Springfield, Mass.; Boston, Mass., second Saturday in May, 1913.

North central association of colleges and secondary schools: W. J. S. Bryan, St. Louis, Mo.; Thomas A. Clark, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

North central council of State normal school presidents: L. C. Lord, Charleston, Ill.; D. W. Hayes, Peru, Nebr.

Northeastern association of science and mathematics teachers: A. F. M. Petersilge, Cleveland, Ohio; H. Y. McMyler, High school of commerce, Cleveland, Ohio.

Northwestern association of history, government, and economics teachers: Charles G. Haines, Whitman college, Walla Walla, Wash.; Leroy F. Jackson, State college of Washington, Pullman, Wash.; Everett, Wash., December 26, 1912.

Pacific manual training teachers' association: A. J. Pirdy, president, Pomona, Cal.; Los Angeles, Cal., 1913.

Physical education association of the Pacific coast: Miss S. Hagethorn; Mary C. Meredith.

Playground and recreation association of America: Joseph Lee, 101 Tremont street, Boston, Mass.; Howard S. Braucher, 1 Madison avenue, New York, N. Y.

Religious education association: Harry P. Judson, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; Henry F. Cope, 332 South Michigan avenue, Chicago, Ill.; Cleveland, Ohio, March 10-13, 1913.

Society for the promotion of engineering education: William T. Magruder, Ohio State university, Columbus, Ohio; H. H. Norris, Cornell university, Ithaca, N. Y.

Society of directors of physical education in colleges: Fred E. Leonard, Oberlin, Ohio; Paul C. Phillips; New York, N. Y.

Southern association of college women: May L. Keller, Baltimore, Md.; Elizabeth A. Colton, Meredith college, Raleigh, N. C.; at time and place of meeting of the Conference for education in the South, 1913.

Southern educational association: H. L. Whitfield, Columbus, Miss.; William F. Feagin, Montgomery, Ala.; Louisville, Ky., November 28-30, 1912.

Southern industrial educational association: Seth Sheperd, 1447 Massachusetts avenue, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. C. David White, 1459 Girard street, Washington, D. C.; Washington, D. C., October 26, 1912.

Southern kindergarten association: Miss Marion S. Hanckel, Schoolfield, Va.; Miss C. P. Oppenheimer, 402 E. Park avenue, Savannah, Ga.; at time and place of meeting of the Southern educational association, Louisville, Ky., November 28-30, 1912.

Western drawing and manual training association: Emma M. Church, 310 Harvester building, Chicago, Ill.; Wilson H. Henderson, Hammond, Ind.; Des Moines, Iowa, May 7-10, 1913.

Women's educational and industrial union: Mrs. Mary S. Woolman, 264 Boylston street, Boston, Mass.; Miss Melita Knowles, 264 Boylston street, Boston, Mass.; Boston, Mass., November 12, 1912.

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UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION
BULLETIN, 1912: NO. 32 - - - - - - WHOLE NUMBER 506

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN AND THEIR EDUCATION

By ARTHUR MACDONALD

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1913

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN.

[The abbreviations employed for publications in foreign languages are those used in the Index catalogue of the library of the Surgeon-General's office and in the Psychological index.]

I. PUBLICATIONS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

1. **Abelson, A. R.** The measurement of mental ability of "backward" children. British journal of psychology, 4:268-314, 1911-12.

   This article differs from most papers on the subject by elucidating principles upon which the tests are based, and refers to children only just below normality, that is, backward children. Eighty-eight girls and forty-three boys of the London county council schools for mental defectives were examined. Every test was made at least twice, and three years were taken to complete the work. A careful description of methods in tests is given, and the author emphasizes the mathematical treatment of results. Tabulated detailed results set forth; real nature of intellectual deficiency; general conclusions, etc.

2. ——— Mental tests for defective children. *In* National conference on the prevention of destitution, held at London, May 30-31 and June 1-2, 1911. p. 676-86.

   A general consideration of the subject.

3. **Adams, Almeda C.** The education of the blind child with the seeing child in the public schools. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1908. p. 1137-42.

   An impromptu address. Miss Adams has been blind since infancy.

   Discussion by Mary McCowen and Elizabeth E. Farrell. See also Training School, 5: 1-6, September 1908.

4. **Addams, Jane.** The home and the special child. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1908. p. 1127-31.

5. **Aley, Robert J.** Care of exceptional children in the grades. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1910. p. 881-86.

   Classification of exceptional children.

6. **Alger, E. M.** A factor in the etiology of the backward scholar. Medical times, 33:111, 1905.

   Author explains how defects in sight and hearing cause backwardness.

7. **Allen, Edward Ellis.** Education of defectives. *In* Education in the United States . . . ed. by Nicholas Murray Butler. New York [etc.] American book company, 1910. [©1900] p. 771-819. tables.

   Bibliography: p. 811-15.

8. **Allen, William Harvey.** Civics and health, with an introduction by William T. Sedgwick . . . Boston, New York [etc.] Ginn and company [©1909] xi, 411 p. incl. front. (port.) illus., tables, diagrs. 8°.

   Note especially data on mouth breathing; eye strain; ear troubles; malnutrition; deformities; abnormally bright children; nervousness of teacher and pupil; vitality tests and vital statistics; official machinery for enforcing healthrights, etc.

9. **Anderson, Meta L.** A "Special class." Training school, 6:166-67, February 1910.

   A class of sixteen boys; poor eyesight.

10. **Arnold, Felix.** Classification and education of afflicted children. Psychological clinic, 2:180-91, November 15, 1908.

11. **Atwood, C. E.** The school training of backward children in the New York city public schools. New York, 1907. 8°.

    Reprinted from the Medical journal (New York), 1907.

    Description of the ungraded schools in the city—their classification, treatment of pupils, etc.

12. **Ayres, Leonard P.** The effect of physical defects on school progress. Psychological clinic, 3: 71–77, May 15, 1909.

    Reprinted.

    Also in Hygiene and physical education, 1: 599–606, September 1909.

    Statistical, for Camden, Philadelphia, and New York school children.

13. ——— Irregular attendance—a cause of retardation. Psychological clinic, 3: 1–8, March 15, 1909.

14. ——— Laggards in our schools; a study of retardation and elimination in city school systems. New York, Charities publication committee, 1909. xv, 236 p. incl. tables. diagrs. 8°. (Russell Sage foundation [publication])

    "Such a book, at once readable and scholarly, scientific and popular, critical and constructive, is typical of the best in educational literature."—Independent, August 5, 1909, p. 311.

15. ——— The money cost of repetition versus the money saving through acceleration. American school board journal, 44: 13–14, January 1912.

    Gives statistics on returns of a cooperative investigation conducted in 1911 by the Russell Sage foundation and the superintendents of schools in 29 cities.

16. ——— The money cost of the repeater. Psychological clinic, 3: 49–57, 1909.

    Also reprint.

    Method of determining repeaters. Statistics of number and cost in 65 cities.

17. ——— Open-air schools. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 898–903.

    German open-air school combines sanitarium, playground, and school. Gives results (in general) and formation of open-air schools in United States; administration, equipment for each child, and cost thereof.

18. ——— The relation between entering age and subsequent progress among school children. Education, 32: 325–33, February 1912.

    Based on statistics gathered in 1908 by the author, and on investigations made in 1911 by the Russell Sage foundation. Concludes that the age of six is the "one making the best showing."

19. ——— The relation between physical defects and school progress. American physical education review, 15: 389–95, 1910.

    Gives causes of retardation in New York city schools for 1909; 16,000 children studied. Treats of different physical defects, per cent of the same, and effect on school progress.

20. ——— A simple system for discovering some factors influencing nonpromotion. Psychological clinic, 5: 189–92, December 15, 1910.

    Results of study of 1,396 pupils in the Manchester schools; defects of pupils; social and physical conditions.

21. ——— Some factors affecting grade distribution. Psychological clinic, 2: 121–33, October 15, 1908.

22. ——— The training of the mentally and physically unfortunate. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 242–47.

    Reviews the developments of the past decade. Discusses contagious diseases of childhood; the backward and tuberculous child. Declares the public school to be the true instrument of eugenics.

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Appendix: Rules of the London county council (Education department) in reference to the exclusion of children from school on account of infectious diseases.

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CONTENTS.—I. Minutes of evidence (relating to England and Wales on the original reference) . . . with appendices and witnesses index . . . Questions 1 to 11,021.—II. Minutes of evidence (relating to England and Wales on the original reference) . . . with appendices and witnesses index . . . Questions 11,022 to 20,788.—III. Minutes of evidence (relating to Scotland and Ireland on the original reference) . . . with appendices and indexes . . . Questions 20,789 to 25,072.—IV. Minutes of evidence relating to England and Wales under the extended reference dated 2nd November, 1906 . . . with appendices and indexes . . . Questions 25,073 to 35,004.—V. Appendices to the Minutes of evidence . . .—VI. Reports of the medical investigators with memorandum thereon . . .—VII. Report of the members . . . upon their visit to American institutions . . .—VIII. Report . . .

149. **Royal commission on the care and control of the feeble-minded.** Report of Committee on the mental and physical condition of children. London, 1895. p. 108.

Chapter ix:—Education of feeble-minded children; conduct and administration; dull and backward children, but not feeble-minded; punitive schools; classification of physical defects; extensive detailed tabulation.

150. **Greene, Mary C.** Should the scope of the public-school system be broadened so as to take in all children capable of education? If so, how should this be done? *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1903. p. 998–1007.

The idea of classes for exceptional children is advocated. Discussion by T. D. Wood, Ellen Le Garde, J. T. Prince, and W. E. Fernald.

151. **Greenwood, Allen.** Some eye defects of feeble-minded and backward children. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1903. p. 1023–28.

Such children are prone to marked malformation of the eyes.

152. **Greenwood, James M.** Retardation of pupils in their studies and how to minimize it. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1909. p. 182–92.

Considers distribution and promotion of pupils. Gives results of special study of author.

Discussion by Roland P. Falkner, J. A. Koontz, and Samuel Hamilton.

153. **Gregory, A. E.** The aims and methods of the National children's home and orphanage. Child, 1: 68–78, 1911.

Illustrated.

154. **Groszmann, Maximilian P. E.** The backward child vs. the feeble-minded child. American journal of obstetrics, 65: 138–45, 1912.

Causes of backwardness; discussion of term "backward."

155. ——— Danger signals in young children. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1910. p. 874–81.

Also in Kindergarten review, 21: 109–15, October 1910.

Discussion by F. G. Bruner, Luella A. Palmer, W. N. Hamilton, and Dr. Groszmann.

The child can not be handled and molded at will.

156. ——— How to dispose of exceptional children. School exchange, 3: 31–37, October 1908. illus.

Contains a tentative classification of exceptional children, made by the author on the basis of his own study of the subject. He divides the types we may observe into six classes, as follows: 1. Congenitally abnormal children; 2. Congenitally defective children; 3. Children of rudimentary or atavistic development; 4. Children of arrested development; 5. Atypical children proper; 6. Pseudo-atypical children.

157. ——— Legal provisions for exceptional children. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 1070–77.

Considers laws in South and West in connection with resolutions passed by department of special education of the National education association of the United States, at Boston, 1911.

158. ——— To what extent may atypical children be successfully educated in our public schools? *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1904. p. 754–59.

Considers general classes of atypical children.

159. **Groszmann, W. H.** The position of the atypical child. Journal of nervous and mental diseases, 33: 425–46, 1906.

Term typical means average. Writer gives classification of atypical and pseudo-atypical children, and analysis of same. Describes ungraded classes.

160. **Gulick, Luther H.** The next step in the investigation. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1909. p. 365–67.

Discussion of exceptional children, by I. C. McNeill.

161. ——— Why 250,000 children quit school? World's work, 4: 13285–289, August 1910.

Popular article. Yearly number of children leaving school in United States. Writer thinks that the standards are too high and teaching defective. Cites records of 40,000 children in 250 cities examined by Gulick and Ayers of Russell Sage foundation. Results are given briefly.

162. **Hall, Bert.** Truancy: A few causes and a few cures. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1909. p. 217–22.

Eighty per cent of truancy due to defective parenthood.

163. **Hall, Frank H.** *and* **Johnson, George E.** Influence of the study of the unusual child upon the teaching of the usual. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1903. p. 987–98.

Gives questionnaires and consideration of the same.

Discussion by F. B. Brandt and C. F. F. Campbell.

164. **Hall, G. Stanley.** Psychic arrest in adolescence. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1903. p. 811–13.

Discussion by Adolph Meyer and G. E. Dawson.

165. **Hamilton, W. J.** Some waste motion in school administration. Journal of education, 75: 200-202, February 22, 1912.

Discusses the inefficiency in school administration and gives suggestions for betterment, such as definite courses of study, special classes, more authority for the principals, etc.

166. **Haney, James P.** Education of the dullard in the public schools. Journal of education (Boston) 63: 619–21, 1906.

Classes should be limited to 15; teachers should be specially trained.

167. **Harcourt, Charles.** Reform for the truant boy in industrial training and farming. Craftsman, 15: 436–46, January 1909, illus.

168. **Harris, William T.** The study of arrested development in the child, as produced by injurious school methods. Education, 20: 453–67, April 1900.

Presents general conditions surrounding teaching. Discusses child study, and the new psychology.

169. **Heeter, S. L.** Separate schools with separate courses of training for the separate needs of our children. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 1034–38.

Author emphasizes recognition of child and its individual needs. Presents difficulties and objections to separate schools. Considers public awakening necessary.

170. **Hefferan, Helen M.** The organization of associations of parents of deaf children as an aid to schools. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1902. p. 848–50.

Discussion by Alexander Graham Bell, W. D. Parker, J. H. Stout, and Mary McCowen.

171. **Heilman, J. D.** A clinical examination blank for backward children in the public schools. Psychological clinic, 1: 189–97, 217–30, 258–67, 1907.

Blank for Camden (N. J.) school children. States that 2,000 or 26⅓ per cent are retarded.

172. ——— The need for special classes in the public schools. Psychological clinic, 1907, 1: 104–114, June 15.

Study of Camden's retarded children. Gives sketch of twenty cases.

173. **Henderson, Charles R.** An introduction to the study of the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes, and of their social treatment. Boston, D. C. Heath & co., 1909. 404 pp. 8°.

174. **Hicks, Vinnie C.** What constitutes a sub-normal child and to what extent can he be trained? *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 1077–83.

Considers classification and gives list of characteristics of sub-normal children under clinical examination. Different methods of improving sub-normal child discussed.

175. **Holmes, Arthur.** Classification of retarded children. Pennsylvania school journal, 60: 388–94, February 1912.

Address delivered before the Child study round table of Pennsylvania, December 27, 1911.

176. **Holmes, W. H.** Plans of classification in the public schools. Pedagogical seminary, 18: 475–522, December 1911.

Describes plans of grading and promotion in this country and Germany, also methods of individual instruction and provisions for gifted children in the United States and other countries.

177. ——— Promotion classes for gifted pupils. Journal of education, 75: 376–79, April 4, 1912.

178. How defective children are trained in school. Training school, 7: 230–31, 1910.

Extract from a New York newspaper. Says that special classes seem popular.

179. **Huey, Edmund B.** Backward and feeble-minded children; clinical studies in the psychology of defectives, with a syllabus for the clinical examination and testing of children. Baltimore, Warwick and York, 1912. xii, 221 p. illus. 12°. (Educational psychology monographs)

Bibliography: p. 209-13.

Author gives routine tests, official terminology and clinical study of 32 border cases of backwardness and feeble-mindedness, made upon the highest-grade children of institutions. Results of study of each case are given in detail with photograph of the child. Writer develops extensive syllabus for clinical examination with the following heads: (1) Home record; (2) attendance record; (3) physical examination; and (4) mental examination.

180. ——— Binet's scale for measuring intelligence. Volta review, 13: 26-30, April 1911.

Also published in Journal of educational psychology, October 1910.

Author shows that the Binet system may be applied to the deaf.

181. ——— Retardation and the mental examination of retarded children. Journal of psycho-asthenics, 15: 31-43, 1910-11.

Classifies the abnormally retarded. Neuroses and psychoneuroses defined; retardation in adolescence.

182. **Hughes, Robert Edward.** The education of defective children. *In his* The making of citizens. London [etc.]. The Walter Scott publishing co., 1906. p. 367-86.

Statistical.

183. **Indiana. Department of public instruction.** Juvenile court. *In* 24th biennial report of the State superintendent of public instruction for the school years ending July 31, 1907, and July 31, 1908. (F. A. Cotton, superintendent of public instruction) Indianapolis, 1908. p. 310-34.

184. **Indiana town and city superintendents' association. Committee on delinquent and dependent children including truancy, juvenile courts and poor relief.** Report. State association of town and city superintendents, 1908 . . . [n. p., 1908] 40 p. incl. tables, diagrs. 8°.

185. **James, ———.** The teaching of the mentally defective child. Paidologist, 5: 83-88, July 1903.

Treatment of defective children, Liverpool, England: how they come or are brought to school.

186. **Johnston, Katherine L.** M. Binet's method for the measurement of intelligence. *In* British association for the advancement of science. Report, 1910. p. 806-8.

Gives methods and results of Binet's tests on 200 school girls of Sheffield, England.

187. ——— M. Binet's method for the measurement of intelligence: some results. Journal of experimental pedagogy, 1: 24-31, 1911.

Concerning girls only.

188. **Johnstone, E. R.** Forward teachers of backward children. Charities, 12: 889-96, September 1905.

189. ——— The functions of the special class. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1908. p. 1114-27.

Also in Training school, 5: 6-9, November 1908.

The special class is a clearing house. Reasons given for the necessity of special classes.

190. ——— How to get the best results in training the mentally deficient child. Archives of pediatrics, 27: 385-8, 1910.

Symposium.

191. ——— The summer school for teachers of backward children. Journal of psycho-asthenics, 14: 122-30, 1909-10.

"Feeble-minded club"; starting of special classes; practical thoughts as to work.

Discussion by Dr. Smith, Dr. Rogers, and Prof. Johnstone.

192. ——— Who is the special child? Training school (supplement): 21-30, March, 1908.

General presentation of subject. Five to ten per cent of pupils need special care. Distinction between backwardness and feeble-mindedness. Describes signs of special child in head, eyes, ears, mouth, nose, hands, and feet.

193. **Jones, Elmer E.** A concrete example of the value of individual teaching. Psychological clinic, 2: 195–203, December 15, 1908.
Reprinted.

194. **Jones, H. E.** Stammering and other defects of speech in school children. Practical teacher, 31: 667–69, 1911.
Illustrated.

195. **Jones, Olive.** The systematic care of the exceptional child. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1909. p. 346–50.

196. **Jones, W. Franklin.** An experimental-critical study of the problem of grading and promotion. Psychological clinic, 5: 63–96, 99–120, May and June 1911.
A systematic and extended treatment. Lock-step system of grading no longer tenable. Too great a tendency to machine like administration; students should be classed into groups which are homogeneous. Deliberative judgment as well as results of examination should determine promotion or demotion. The personal acquaintance with pupil is the vital thing; needs of individual rather than system. Contains bibliography.

197. **Kelly, R. L.** Psychophysical tests of normal and abnormal children. A comparative study. Psychological review, 10: 345–72, 1903.
Studies from Psychological laboratory of the University of Chicago. Purposes of tests.

198. **Kerr, James.** Mentally defective children. Birmingham medical review, May–June 1905.
Reprinted. 42 p.
Contains theoretical and practical consideration of dull, backward, and feeble-minded children, as distinguished from idiots and imbeciles. Presents diagnoses of cases.

199. **Kingsley, Sherman C.** The open-air school. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 336–42.
Case of "Julia" given in detail. Testimonials from open-air schools in different States. Children in these schools gain in weight; temperatures are reduced. They are rendered more alert and attentive.

200. **Kirby, Lydia A.** What is being done for backward and mentally deficient children in the public schools of Philadelphia. Bulletin of the American academy of medicine, 10: 490–505, 1909.
Special exercises described. Gives 15 cases, which show great improvement.

201. **Kirk, John R.** Better training for the non-average individual. Journal of education, 65: 290–91, March 4, 1907.
Definition of training; 3 classes of pupils.

202. **Kirkbride, Franklin B.** Defective children in New York schools. Survey, 26: 168–70, April 22, 1911.

203. **Kirkpatrick, E. A.** Some simple methods of recognizing physical fitness and unfitness of school children for school work. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1905. p. 760–68.
Physical defects causing difficulties in school.
Discussion by W. W. Hastings.

204. **Kruesi, Walter E.** Providence fresh air school. Charities and The Commons, 20: 97–99, April 18, 1908. illus.
See also The school of outdoor life for tuberculous children. Charities and the Commons, 21: 446–49, December 19, 1908.
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205. **Kulhmann, F.** Binet and Simon's system for measuring the intelligence of children. Journal of psycho-asthenics, 15: 76–92, 1911.
A condensed statement of the Binet-Simon system with minor adaptations. giving some of the diagrams and figures.

206. ——— Dr. Ayre's criticism of the Binet and Simon system for measuring the the intelligence. A reply. Journal of psycho-asthenics, 16: 58–67, 1911.
According to the author, Dr. Ayre's criticism is in error, owing to misunderstanding of Binet's tests.

207. **Lapage, C. P.** Feeble-mindedness in children of school age. With appendix on treatment and training by Mary Dendy. Manchester, University press, 1911. viii, 359 p. 8°.
Distinguishes three grades of defectiveness; 90 per cent hereditary and 10 per cent due to injury or disease; 67 per cent with abnormal palates. Gives methods of examination.

208. **Lawson, H. S.** Experimental work on intelligence. *In* British association for the advancement of science. Report, 1910. London, 1911. p. 806.

Brief statement of experiments on groups of boys between 9 and 16 years of age.

209. **Le Favre, Caroline.** Suggestions from outline plan of "special school." Denver, Published by the author, ———.

Private ungraded school.

210. **Legarde, Ellen.** Should the scope of the public school system be broadened so as to take in all children capable of education? Journal of education (Boston) 58: 240–45, October 8, 1903.

Experience and history of Providence (R. I.) schools for mentally defective. Reports 80 per cent are "cured," or greatly benefited.

211. **Lincoln, D. F.** Special classes for mentally defective children in Boston public schools. Journal of psycho-asthenics, 14: 89–92, 1909–10.

Presents brief statement of history and method of work.

212. ——— What is to become of our backward school children? American physical education review, 10: 31–35, 1905.

Emphasizes danger from such children if not provided for. Description of some cases.

213. **Lipmann, O.** On testing intelligence in children. *In* British association for the advancement of science. Report, 1910. London [1911] p. 805.

Diagrammatic representation of methods of Bobertag, Binet and Simon, McDougal and Galton. Calls attention to remarkable similarity of methods.

214. **Lloyd, R. J.** The education of physically and mentally defective children. Westminster review, 159: 662–74, June, 1905.

Records what has been done in Great Britain under the act of 1899.

215. **London. County Council.** Report of medical officer for 1909. Open-air schools, p. 15. Exclusion of children, p. 54–55 (tables, diagrams). Special schools, p. 69–93. London, printed by Southwood, Smith & Co., ltd., 1910.

216. ——— ——— **Education committee.** Open-air school, Bostall Wood (Plumstead). Report of the Education committee of the Council submitting . . . a report by the educational adviser on experiments conducted in Germany in connection with open-air schools, and . . . a joint report of the medical officer and the executive officer on the open-air school carried on in Bostall Wood between 22nd July and 19th October, 1907. [London, Printed for the London County council by J. Truscott and son, ltd., 1908] 27 p. plates, diagrs. F°.

217. ——— ——— ——— Training of mentally defective children in Germany. Report, submitting a report of the educational adviser. [London] Printed for the London County council by J. Truscott and son, ltd. [1908] 21 p. F°.

Frederick Rose, educational adviser.

218. **Lord, Mabel D.** Anæmic children in an open-air school. Survey, 26: 140–42, April 22, 1911.

Illustrated.

219. **Luckey, G. W. A.** Can we eliminate the school laggard? *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 1046–51.

Refers to results of Thorndike and Ayres. Enumerates nine causes of retardation. Author regards too early specialization as an evil.

220. **Lurton, Freeman E.** Retardation in fifty-five western towns. Journal of education, 75: 262–63, March 7, 1912.

Statistics of retardation in 55 villages and smaller cities in Minnesota.

221. ——— A study of retardation in the schools of Minnesota. Science, n. s. 34: 785–89, 1911.

Author gives results of study of schools distributed over the state; 17,279 pupils in all. Ayres standard of retardation conceals one year of retardation. Comparison of results with other systems.

222. **Lynch, Ella Frances.** The bright child. Training school, 4: 141–44, October 15, 1910.

Describes school for individual instruction. Emphasizes the inadequacy of the present school system.

223. **Macatee, H. L.** School laggards; some comments on the local situation. Washington medical annals, 10: 149–62, 1911-12.

Read before the Medical society of the District of Columbia, May 10, 1911. Statistics of Washington schools. Causes of retardation presented at length, and conclusions given. Discussion.

224. **McCarthy, D. J.** Neuropathology in childhood, with a consideration of pathological factors in some cases of retarded mental development. International clinic, 3: 253–358, 1909.

Advocates investigation along *biochemical* lines.

225. **McCowen, Mary.** How special classes for deaf children in the public schools came to be and what they aim to do. Educational bi-monthly, 2: 430–49, June 1908.

Contains statistics, taken from American annals of the deaf, January 1908.

226. **McCready, E. Bosworth.** Biological variations in the higher cerebral centers causing retardation. Archives of pediatrics, 27: 506–13, 1910.

Congenital word-blindness, giving description of cases. Bibliography.

227. ——— The care of the exceptional child. Archives of pediatrics, 28: 508–17, 1911.

From standpoint of physician. Makes fine classes.

228. ——— Clinical studies of exceptional children. American journal of obstetrics, 65: 169–75, 1912.

Six cases given in detail and discussed.

229. ——— Congenital word-blindness as a cause of backwardness in school children. Pennsylvania medical journal, 13: 278-84, January 1910.

Case of stuttering. Short bibliography. Discussion by Drs. Hudson-Makuen and McCready.

230. **MacDonald, Arthur.** Children with abnormalities; based upon reports of teachers. Medical times and register (Philadelphia) 37: 181–83, 1899.

Some results of a study of Washington, D. C., school children. "Abnormal" refers to pupils designated by the teachers as peculiar or defective. Twenty thousand children reported on.

231. ——— Juvenile crime and reformation, including stigmata of degeneration; being a hearing on the bill (H. R. 16733) to establish a laboratory for the study of the criminal, pauper, and defective classes. Washington, Government printing office, 1908. 339 p. illus. 8°.

Chapter on stigmata of degeneration. Gives only such physical defects as are regarded by specialists in general as stigmata. First synthetic presentation of degeneration in its three aspects, of mental, moral and physical.

232. ——— Mentality of nations in connection with patho-social data. Monist, October 1912.

Extends estimation of mentality in schools to determine mentality of different states of the Union and of nations of the world.

233. **Mac Millan, S. P.** A psychologist's criterion of mental inefficiency in children. Clinique (Chicago), 29: 406–12, 1908.

General considerations. Procedure in the study of the mind. Two cases for illustration.

234. **Macmurchy, Helen.** How to find the feeble-minded child. *In* Fifth congress of the American school hygiene association, New York, February 2–4, 1911. Proceedings, vol. iii, p. 73–81.

235. **McMurtie, Douglas C.** Care of crippled children. Survey, 26: 1208–11, November 18, 1911.

Illustrated.

236. **Maennel, B.** The auxiliary schools of Germany . . . Tr. by F. B. Dresslar. Washington, Government printing office, 1907. 137 p. 8°. (U. S. Bureau of education. Bulletin no. 3, 1907)

Bibliography: p. 125–31.

A free translation of Vom hilfsschulwesen, a recent German account of the educational provisions in that country for backward, defective, and subnormally endowed children. Full statements are given as to admission procedure, health conditions, classification of pupils, the curriculum, and methods of discipline and instruction. The monograph should be useful wherever such work is being done or is to be attempted in this country.

237. **Maguire, M. E.** The care of the teeth of Rochester's (N. Y.) backward children. Training school, 8: 122–23, December 1911.

Six special conditions to insure sureness of experiments. Gives steps in examining a child.

238. **Mahony, J. J.** The problem of the poor pupil. Education, 28: 197–212.

Describes the Batavia system of individual instruction and flexible grading schemes of several cities. Acknowledges that plenty of valuable experimenting has been done, but lack of cooperation has led to no educational doctrine. What is most needed now is an attempt through an intelligent application of pupil study, through a close cooperation between the home and the school, to discover just why the pupil is poor.

239. **Makuen, G. Hudson.** The hearing and speech of the backward child. Archives of pediatrics, 27: 384, 1910.

Symposium.

240. ——— Speech as a factor in the diagnosis and prognosis of backwardness in children. Journal of the American medical association, 37: 975–76, 1901.

Impairment of speech centers usually accompanied by impairment of ideational centers of the brain.

241. ——— What may be done for exceptional children by the training of speech and the development of language. Bulletin of the American academy of medicine, 10: 506–26, 1909.

List of 25 questions asked. Five cases cited and described. Discussion by Ruth Lathrop, Ravolgi, Zenner, Grossmann, Baker, Farrington, and Murphy.

242. **Martindale, W. C.** The separation of the insubordinate and incorrigible children from the regular school. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1907. p. 322–27.

Sums up methods of reducing the number of incorrigible children.

243. **Meleney, Clarence E.** Education for defective children. School journal, 62: 523–25, May 11, 1901.

Advocates census of defective children in public schools and special schools.

244. **Meumann, Ernst.** On testing intelligence in children. *In* British association for the advancement of science. Report, 1910. London, 1911. v. 80. p. 808.

Author gives briefly "outcome" of his "reflections" in formal statements.

245. **Meylan, George.** Some observations on the value of physical activities in the treatment of atypical boys. American journal of obstetrics, 65: 186–89, 1912.

Terms "exceptional" or "atypical" designate slight deviation from normal; "subnormal" and "abnormal," marked deviation.

246. **Miller, Charles A. A. J.** The study of exceptional children. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1908. p. 957–63.

Gives detailed classification of exceptional children.

247. ——— What kind of qualifications and training should the teacher of the special class have? *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1910. p. 1061–66.

248. **Mills, H. B.** The mentally deficient child in school, a victim of educational methods and incompetent boards. Pediatrics, 22: 120–28, 1910.

Examinations too long; school year too long. Fourteen recommendations are given.
Discussion by Drs. Van Derslice, Hollopeter, and Polozker.

249. **Monroe, Will S.** Feeble minded children in the public schools. *In* Association of medical officers of American institutions for idiotic and feeble-minded children. Proceedings, Fort Wayne, Ind., May 1894. Westfield, Mass., 1897. 11 p.

Results of observations on 10,842 pupils by many teachers. List of author's writings on education of defective children.

250. **Munroe, James Phinney.** The problem of defectives and delinquents. Journal of pedagogy, 20: 160–75, June 1910.

251. **Murphy, J. P.** *and* **Cornell, W. S.** The care of exceptional children by the Children's bureau of Philadelphia. Bulletin of the American academy of medicine, 10: 472–89, 1909.

Gives investigation and methods of disposition of cases.

252. **Nalder, F. F.** The gradation and promotion of pupils. Northwest journal of education, 23: 255–57, February 1912.

Discusses some weaknesses of the examination system, the best way to determine a pupil's rank, some popular errors, and progress made periodically.

253. **Nash, Elizabeth D.** Special schools for defective children. Journal of psycho-asthenics, 6: 42–48.

Some causes and characteristics of defective children described.

254. **National association for the study and education of exceptional children.** Annual report for the third fiscal year, February 1908. Plainfield, N.J., 1908. 8°.

255. ——— Proceedings of the second annual conference on the problem of the exceptional child, December first and second, 1911. [Plainfield, N. J., Courier-News job print, 1912] 190 p. 8°.

Contains: 1. J. J. Cronin: The relation of exceptional physical conditions to exceptional mental conditions, 57-63. 2. M. P. E. Grossmann: The backward child vs. the feeble-minded child, p. 73–80. 3. G. P. Barth: Educational needs of various kinds of exceptional children, p. 84-87. 4. Richard Welling: How to socialize the unsocialized child. Constructive attitude toward pseudo-atypical children, p. 91-99. 5. L. P. Ayres: The identification, location and enumeration of the misfit child in the public schools, p. 103-11. 6. F. C. Lewis: The exceptional child in the private school, p. 113-16. 7. George Meylan: Some observation on the value of physical activities in the education of atypical boys, p. 117-20. 8. F. E. Bolton: The relation of the state to the education of exceptional children, p. 121-27. 9. C. A. Eaton: Faulty home education as a case of exceptional development, p. 144–47. 10. J. M. Fletcher: Speech defects in children, p. 148-59.

256. **National conference on the education of backward, truant and delinquent children.** Fifth. Richmond, Va., May 4–6, 1908. 147 p. 8°. (O. E. Darnall, secretary, Washington, D. C.)

257. **National council of education. Committee on provision for exceptional children in the public schools.** Preliminary report. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1908. p. 345–85.

"Brief list of some of the best books and articles available on the subject": p. 359-60.

258. **National education association of the United States. Department of special education.** Report of Committee on books and tests pertaining to the study of exceptional and mentally deficient children. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1909. p. 901–15.

Frank G. Bruner, chairman.
Bibliography: p. 912-14.
Considers grading of backward children (by H. H. Goddard, De Sanctis, Binet and Simon tests).

259. ——— ——— Report of the Committee on statistics of defective sight and hearing of public school children. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1904. p. 946–52.

F. W. Booth, chairman.
Gives list of questions sent out, and results obtained.

260. ——— **Department of superintendence.** Committee on uniform records and reports. Payson Smith, chairman. *In its* Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 271–302.

Results given in detailed tabular form.

261. ——— **National council of education.** Committee on provision for exceptional children in the public schools. Preliminary report. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1908. p. 345–85.

Bibliography: p. 359-60.
Method of procedure; classification of exceptional children, etc. Special classes in St. Louis, New York, Berlin, etc., described. Tables given for observations, special medical examination, and treatment of backward children. Account of abnormal children in France, Belgium, Berlin, and The Hague.

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J. H. Van Sickle, chairman.

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Some headings in this article are as follows: Education of cripples; schools for cripples; and Manchester (England) residential school, which is described more at length.

338. **Terman, Lewis M.** The Binet-Simon scale for measuring intelligence; impressions gained by its application. Psychological clinic, 5: 199–206, December 15, 1911.

Scales of this general type are feasible, though very imperfect. Physiological age must be determined. Tests must be developed to apply to all degrees of mental ability.

339. ——— *and* **Childs, H. G.** A tentative revision and extension of the Binet-Simon measuring scale of intelligence. Journal of educational psychology, 3: 61–74, 133–43, 198–208, 277–89, February, March, April, May 1912.

Binet scale requires radical revision to fit the United States. Three hundred and ninety-six non-selected children were studied, representing all classes. Whipple's manual is followed in general for instructions, and detailed results are given in tabular form. These tests show the type of mind not adapted to social environment, rather than intelligence in its entirety. Many tests were rearranged, supplemented or discarded. Writers think that tests for physiological age should be applied. Backwardness may be late maturity. Binet's assigned credit faulty. Suggestions are given for further development.

340. **Thorndike, Edward L.** The elimination of pupils from school. Washington, Government printing office, 1908. 63 p. 8°. (U. S. Bureau of education. Bulletin no. 4, 1907)

A statistical study of what pupils stay in school, how long they stay, what grades they reach, and why they leave. The significance of the results for the immediate problems of school administration are briefly suggested.

341. **Town, Clara Harrison.** The Binet-Simon scale and the psychologist. Psychological clinic, 5: 239–44, January 15, 1912.

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342. ——— Public day schools for backward children. Psychological clinic, 1: 81–88, May 15, 1907.

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402. **Newark, N. J. Board of education.** Special classes for defective children. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 76–85.
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403. **Oakland, Cal. Public schools.** Retardation, defective children. *In* Annual report, 1910. p. 7–11.
Schedule and table of retardation.

404. **Philadelphia, Penn. Board of education.** Committee on special schools. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 287–89.
Special classes as disciplinary and for the backward.

405. **Portland, Ore. Board of directors.** School for deaf, stammerers and defectives. *In their* Annual report, 1911. p. 260–61.

406. **Providence, R. I. School committee.** Backward children. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 109, 112–13.
Describes schools for individual work. Gives statistics of nonpromotion.

407. **Reading, Penn. Board of education.** Exceptional pupils. *In its* Annual report, 1911. p. 7–9.

408. **Rochester, N. Y. Board of education.** Backward and defective children, open-air schools, etc. *In its* Annual report, 1908–1910. p. 8, 122–25.

409. ——— ——— Special classes; classes for foreigners. *In its* Annual report, 1905–1907. p. 6–7, 28–29.

410. **St. Louis, Mo. Board of education.** Statistics of special schools. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 163–66, 309.
Also in Report for 1911. p. 94–99.
Causes of exemption. Delinquent children.

411. **St. Paul, Minn. Board of school inspectors.** Retardation; exceptional child; ungraded rooms. *In their* Biennial report, 1908–09. p. 73–80.
Parental school.

412. **Salt Lake city, Utah. Board of education.** Subnormal classes. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 87, 107.
Also in Report for 1911. p. 45–49.
Special and ungraded rooms.

413. ——— ——— Prevention and retardation table. *In its* Annual report, 1909–10. p. 96–100.

414. **Schenectady, N. Y. Board of education.** Retardation. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 8–11.
Retardation in high schools; tables.

415. **Seattle, Wash. Board of directors.** Schools for exceptional children; truancy. *In their* Annual report, 1911. p. 23–26.

416. **Somerville, Mass.** **School committee.** Atypical class. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 21–22, 48–9.

417. **Topeka, Kans.** **Board of education.** Special school for boys. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 95.
School efficiency.

418. **Trenton, N. J.** **Board of education.** Special classes and schools. *In its* Annual report, 1909. p. 60–65.
Table for three years.

419. **Washington, D. C.** **Board of education.** Ungraded schools. *In its* Annual reports, 1908. p. 70, 110–11. 1909. p. 70, 111–12.

420. **Woonsocket, R. I.** **School committee.** Special schools. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 5, 21.

421. **Worcester, Mass.** **School committee.** Special classes. *In its* Annual report, 1910. p. 1044–48.
Also in Report for 1909. p. 858.
Treats of retardation, ungraded classes, etc.
Six buildings for backward children and 4 for immigrants.

III. PUBLICATIONS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

422. **Abadie, ———.** Alliance d'hygiène sociale. Annales, no. 6, January 1907.
Gives census of exceptional children in the public schools of Bordeaux, France.

423. ——— Rencensement des enfants anormaux des écoles publiques de garçons de la ville de Bordeaux. Alliance de l'hygiène sociale. Annales no. 6, January 1907. p. 18.

424. **Alexejeff, W. G.** Die arithmologischen und wahrscheinlichkeitstheoretischen kausalitäten als grundlagen der Strümpellschen klassifikation der kinderfehler. Zsch. f. phil. u. päd., 14: 145–59, 1906.

425. **Apert, E.** Les enfants rétardataires. Paris, Baillière, 1902. 96 p.
Author treats subject only from medical point of view.

426. **Audemard, ———.** L'œuvre de l'enfance anormale de Lyon et les classes de perfectionnement. Cong. de méd. aliénistes et neural. de France . . . Compt. rend. Paris, 1908. xviii, 290–316 p.
History of the work. Schedule of medico-pedagogical inquiry in public schools. (1) Normal, (2) sub-normal, (3) true abnormals. "Classes de perfectionnement" are each described, and studies of respective pupils given in detail. General consideration of such schools.

427. **B. J.** Una escuela inglesa al aire libre. Revis. de educación (Havana) 2: 276–81, 1912.
Refers to schools in many countries.

428. **Barracelli, S. E.** Deficíenti e tardivi. La scuola per i tardivi. Cremona, Tip. Fezzi, 1903. 77 p.

429. **Bayerthal, ———.** Ueber die entstehungsursachen und verhütung der minderbegabung im schulpflichtigen alter. Kinderarzt. (Leipsic) 20: 121–27, 1909.
The author, after ten years' experience as a school physician, attributes the main cause of mental weakness in children of school age to alcoholism in the parents.

430. **Benda, T.** Die schwachbegabten auf den höheren schulen. Ztschr. f. schulgsndhtspflg. (Hamburg) 15: 160–64, 1902.
Advocates special individual instruction in superior schools. A public address.

431. **Berkhan, Oswald.** Otto Pöhler, das frühlesende braunschweiger kind. Ztsch. f. kindforsch., 15: 166–71.
Study of child able to read when 1¾ years old. Gives history and head measurements.

432. **Biesalski, K.** Umfang und art des jugendlichen krüppeltums und der krüppelfürsorge in Deutschland. Hamburg und Leipzig, Leopold Voss, 1909. 186 p. 4°.
First work, giving comprehensive statistics of young cripples in Germany. Extensive bibliography; methods of obtaining data; and numerous tables.

433. **Binet, Alfred.** À propos de la mesure de l'intelligence. Année psychologique (Paris) 11: 69–82, 1904 (1905).

Fundamental study of measuring intelligence. Describes methods of Biervliet and Parison. Gives results of experiments with elementary and more advanced pupils. Table of cranial diameters and degree of intelligence.

434. ——— Causerie pédagogique. Année psychologique, 14: 405–31, 1908.

Definition and practical suggestions as to special classes.

435. ——— Études préliminaires de céphalométrie sur 59 enfants d'intelligence inégale choisis dans les écoles primaires de Paris. Année psychologique, 7: 369–74, 1901.

Gives results of head measurements—maximum anterior posterior, transverse and frontal diameters; horizontal, demi-anterior and transverse circumference of head; also height of body. Volume of head not found commensurate with intelligence.

436. ——— Les nouvelles classes de perfectionnement. Bull. soc. libre et. psychol. de l'enfant, 7: 170–83, 1907.

437. ——— Das problem der abnormen kinder. Eos (Vienna) 1: 115–30, 1905.

Regulations for receiving pupils into schools for the abnormal. Organization and program of special schools.

438. ——— Recherches de céphalométrie sur 26 enfants d'élite et enfants arrierés des écoles primaires de Seine-et-Marne. Année psychologique, 7: 376–429, 1901.

Measurements of different diameters of the head, nose, mouth, and ear. Details tabulated. The children of the well-to-do classes were found superior in head measurements.

439. ——— Les signes physiques de l'intelligence chez les enfants. Année psychologique, 16: 1–30, 1910.

Discusses dimensions of head, and stigmata of degeneration in relation to intelligence; biting of fingernails; physiognomy; and hands of school children. Conclusions as to intelligence from physical signs must be very reserved. Some have no significance.

440. ——— *and* **Simon, T.** Le carnet sanitaire des écolièrs. Revue scientifique, January 26, 1907.

Gives method for selecting children suspected of being exceptional.

441. ——— *and* **Simon, T.** Le développement de l'intelligence chez les enfants. Année psychologique, 14: 1–94, 1908.

The authors describe in detail their fundamental methods of estimating intelligence. They also give schedules of questions for each age, illustrated by copious examples.

442.——— *and* **Simon, T.** Les enfants anormaux. Guide pour l'admission des enfants anormaux dans les classes de perfectionnement. Avec une préface de Leon Bourgeois. Paris, 1907. 212 p. 12°.

A systematic work on exceptional children. Treats of psychological traits, classification and aptitudes. Discusses pedagogical examination, rôle of inspectors, etc. Gives medical examination; and results gained from special schools.

443. ——— *and* **Simon, T.** Enquête sur le mode d'existence des sujets sortis d'une école d'arriérées. Année psychologique, 11: 137–45, 1905.

Results based on school at Salpetrière. One hundred and twenty children studied; length of time in school; mode of life after leaving school; and relation between their occupation and their disease.

444. ——— *and* **Simon, T.** Méthodes nouvelles pour le diagnostique du niveau intellectuel des anormaux. Année psychologique, 1905. p. 191.

Extensive and fundamental presentation of the subject as a whole.

445. ——— *and* **Simon, T.** La misère physiologique et la misère sociale. Année psychologique, 12: 1.

Cases of malnutrition as causing retardation.

446. **Blin, ———.** Les débilités mentales. Revue de psychiatrie, August, 1902.

Considers difficulties and discrepancies in determining degrees of mental defectiveness.

447. **Bobertag, O.** Binet's arbeiten über die intellektuelle entwickelung des schulkindes. Ztsch. f. angewandte psychol., 3: 230–59, 1909

Bibliography of Binet's works. A general review of the writings of Binet, especially on measurement of intelligence.

448. ——— Ueber intelligenzprüfungen (nach der methode von Binet und Simon). Zsch. f. angew. psychol., 5: 105–203, 1911.

449. **Boger, J.** Les arriérés scolaires. Progrès méd. (Paris) 24: 228, 1908.

A very brief and general consideration of backward pupils.

450. **Boodstein, O.** Die erziehungsarbeit der schule an schwachbegabten. Berlin, Reimer, 1908. 432 p.

451. **Bourneville, ———.** Création de classes speciales pour les enfants arriérés. Paris, 1896.

452. **Büttner, G.** Sonderklassen für höhere schulen. Zsch. fur d. behandl. schwachsinn., 28: 56–58, 1908.

Extension of special classes to advanced schools. Idea of Drs. Beuda, Lagner, and Kemsies, of the Berlin Gymnasium, and Lomer. Some are not capable of higher education. Those endowed in one-sided direction need special training as well as neuropathical students.

453. **Caillard, ———.** Recensement des enfants anormaux des écoles publiques de la ville de Saint-Omer. Progrès med. (Paris) 3. s., 26: 107–12, 137–40, 1910. 1 pl.

Treats of heredity; use of tobacco; tuberculosis and poverty; moral insensibility; physical malformations, etc. Gives results of medico-pedagogical study in tabular form. One hundred and thirty-three out of 738 boys (15 per cent) were found abnormal.

454. **Cassel, J.** Was lehrt die untersuchung der geistig minderwertigen schulkinder im ix. Berliner schulkreis. Berlin, 1901. 8°.

Detailed observations of physical and mental relations of large numbers of children are necessary as a solid basis for the work. Study of some 100 children from medical point of view.

455. **Collard, Charles.** L'éducation protectrice de l'enfance en Prusse. La loi du 2 Juillet 1900 et son application. Préface du D^r. Krohne. Louvain [etc.] Charles Peeters, 1908. xviii, 351 p. illus. 8°.

Bibliography: p. xiii–xviii.

This work contains not only an explanation and commentary of the law relating to the protection of children in Prussia, but shows the application of it and the results obtained up to the present time.

456. **Courgey, ———.** Recherche et classement des anormaux; enquête sur les enfants des écoles de la ville d'Ivry-sur-Seine. Internat. arch. f. schulhyg. (Leipsic) 4: 395–418, 1908.

Discusses cooperation of physician, psychologist, and pedagogue. Divides types into (1) medical abnormals, (2) intellectual and moral abnormals, and (3) mixed abnormals.

457. **Cruchet, R.** Les arriérés scolaires. Paris, 1908. 8°.

458. ——— L'enseignement pédagogique des anormaux dans les hopitaux-écoles. Rev. internat. de méd. et de chir. (Paris) 21: 325–327, 1910.

Hospital schools for children not adapted to simple schools for the abnormal, yet not vicious enough to be sent to reform schools. Two classes: (1) Physically infirm only; (2) mental weakness with physical infirmity. Study of seven cases.

459. ——— Les tests de Binet dans le tout jeune âge. Jour. de méd. de Bordeaux, 42: 21–23, 1912.

Defects of Binet system illustrated by experiment on children in Bordeaux. Author criticises Binet for limiting his first tests to a few only.

460. **Damaye, H.** Mesure de l'intelligence chez les arriérés. Echo méd. du nord (Lille) 14: 280–84, 1910.

Gives in detail schedule of questions to measure intelligence; 15 groups or subjects with questions.

461. **Decroly, O.** L'assistance de l'enfance anormale. *In* Cong. internat. assist. d. aliénér, 1902. Anvers, 1903. p. 1–18.

Term "*enfants anormaux*" means all children (for whatever reason) who are in a state of inferiority and can not adapt themselves to the surroundings in which they are destined to live.

462. ——— La classification des enfants anormaux. Gand, Van der Haegen, 1905. 76 p.

463. ——— Les frontières anthropométriques des anormaux d'après M. Binet, appliqués à des enfants de Bruxelles. Ann. soc. roy. Brux., 1905. 14 (2). 36 p.

History of investigations up to the time of Binet, giving references to authorities in different countries. Results of personal study of 250 backward children (boys and girls). Comparison with Binet's results. Tables and diagrams.

464. ——— Organisation des écoles et institutions pour les arriérés pédagogiques et médicaux. Bruxelles, Bulens, 1905. 23 p.

A paper with similar title was read by the author before the General paidological society of Antwerp, July 14, 1912.

465. **Decroly, O.** La psychologie, la pathologie et le traitement des enfants anormaux. Bull. soc. de méd. ment. de Belg., Brux., 1907. p. 448–61.

Description of Prof. Sommer's Easter vacation school. Courses by Drs. Weygandt, Sommer, Danneman, Klamke, Lay, Gündel and Henze described. The courses include chief branches of the subject.

466. ——— *and* **Boulánger, ———**. Les testes mentaux chez l'enfant. Jour. de neur., 11: 401–47, 1906.

Authors present a critical review of a large number of authorities of different countries on mental tests. Special attention is given to Schuyten and De Sanctis, Binet and Simon. Contains brief bibliography.

467. ——— *and* **Degand,** ***Mlle.*** **J.** La mesure de l'intelligence chez des enfants normaux d'après les tests de MM. Binet et Simon: nouvelle contribution critique. Archv. de psychol., January 1910. p. 81–108.

General considerations; personal observations and conclusions.

468. ——— *and* **Degand,** ***Mlle.*** **J.** La mesure de l'intelligence chez les enfants. 2ᵉ contribution critique. La méthod de Sanctis. Arch. internat. d'hyg. scolaire, 1: 230–303.

An extensive article giving results of study in detail of 29 cases. Comparison of results with those obtained by the two methods (de Sanctis and Binet).

469. ——— *and* **Degand,** ***Mlle.*** **J.** Les testes de Binet et Simon pour la mesure de l'intelligence. Arch. de psychol., 6: 27–130, 1906.

A critical contribution of tests in detail. Classification of children. Conclusions as to each test, with summary of replies to tests and answers of children to questions.

470. **Demoor, ———**. Les enfants anormaux et la criminologie. Bruxelles, 1899. (Extrait de la Revue de l'université de Bruxelles, IV, 1898–99)

Gives results as to failure or success in treatment of feeble-minded.

471. ——— *and* **Decroly, O.** Revue de pédagogie des anormaux. Année psychologique, 10: 317–27, 1903 (1904).

Review of researches on the blind, deaf, feeble-minded, idiots, etc. Need of terminology emphasized. Kölle's given. Dwells on psychological and anthropological side of subject.

472. ——— *and* **Daniel, ———**. Les enfants anormaux à Bruxelles. Année psychologique, 8: 296.

Discusses permanently and temporarily exceptional children.

473. **Descoeudres,** ***Mlle.*** **A.** Les tests de Binet et Simon et leur valeur scolaire. Arch. de psychol. (Geneva) 11: 331–50, 351–75, 1911–12.

Gives results of tests on 24 pupils (good and bad); ages 5 to 13. A detailed analytic and synthetic study.

474. **Drouard, ———**. Les écoles urbaines: normaux, anormaux, adolescents. Paris, Berlin, 1902. 436 p.

475. **Dubois, ———**. Les arriérés. Paris, 1906.

Contains criticism of excluding children because of hereditary antecedents only.

476. **Dupureux, ———**. De l'éducation et de la psychologie des anormaux en Belgique. Jour. de neurl. (Paris) 13: 361–71, 381–93, 1908.

A systematic account of education and psychology of abnormals in Belgium. Author is medical inspector and also director of special education. Gives principal works and brochures by Belgian authors on abnormals, including special education.

477. **Ebbinhaus, H.** Ueber eine neue methode zur prüfung geistiger fähigkeiten und ihre anwendung bei schulkindern. Ztschr. f. psychol. u. physiol. d. sinnesorge (Hamburg and Leipsic) 13: 401–59, 1896–97.

Also translated. See Rev. scient. (Paris) 4, s. 8: 424–30, 1897.

478. **Ettmayr, A.** Von amba bis massi. Ein jahr sprachentwicklung eines hilfsschülers. Zsch. f. exper. päd., 11: 23–43, 1910.

Intensive study of a child entering the auxiliary school; its vocabulary and articulation.

479. **Feltsman, O. B.** O roli psikhiatra v dlelĭe organizatsti vspomogatelnĭkh klassov i nablyudeniya za nimi (na osnovanŭ lichnĭkh vpechatlĭeniy). J. nevropat. i. psikhiat. . . . korskova, Mosk., 1911, xi, 488–516.

On the psychiatrician's rôle in the organization of auxiliary classes and of its surveillance. Based on personal impressions.

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Gives groups and causes of deficient children. Prognosis and cure. Bibliography.

482. **Gallo, G.** Educazione e cura dei bambini deficienti in Italia. Napoli, Verdali, 1907.

483. **Godtfsing, O.** Nachrichten über frühere hilfsschüler. Ztschr. für schulgsndhtspflg. (Hamburg) 24: 329-34, 1911.
Brief history of auxiliary schools.

484. **Göbelbecker, L. F.** Die repetenten und die hilfsschulklasse. Zsch. f. exper. päd., 11: 82-86, 1910.
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485. **Gommès, M.** L'assistance familiale des enfants arriérés. *In* Cong. internat. de l'assist. d. alién., 1902. Antwerp, 1903. no. 25. p. 1-16 (375-390).
Discussion, p. 771.
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Manual for instructing backward children and idiots.

487. **Grossmann, Maximilian P. E.** Welche klassen unter den ausnahmskindern können ohne abschluss von der gesellschaft erzogen werdern? Zeitschr. f. kinderforsch., 15: 108-22.
Classification and graphic representation. Atypical, subnormal children. Schemes for (1) normal, (2) subnormal, and (3) abnormal children.

488. **Gruhle, ———.** Die abnormen und unverbesserlichen jugendlichen in der fürsorgeerziehung. Ztschr. f. d. ges. neurol. u. psychiat. (Berlin and Leipsic) I. orig. p. 638-47, 1910.

489. **Hamon du Fougeray.** Les méthodes d'enseignement spéciales aux enfants anormaux et en particulier aux sourdsmuets. Arch. internat. de laryngol. [etc.] (Paris) 9: 502-15, 1896.
History of subject in France. A general treatment of the subject.

490. **Heilmann, A.** Die fortbildungsschule für schwachbegabte. Zsch. f. beh. schwachs. u. epilept., 23: 18-22, 1907.
Facts as to different schools are given: Nurnberg, Mainz, Düsseldorf, Breslau, Leipzig, Berlin, etc. Subjects taught are in close relation with practical life.

491. **Heller, I.** Ueber geistige schwächeszustände bei kindern, deren pädagogische therapie und prognose. Allg. Wien. med. ztg. 54: 209, 1909.
Austria negligent of her feeble-minded as compared with other countries.

492. **Heller, Theodor.** Psychopathische mittelschüler. Ztschr. f. kinderforsch., 15: 257-69, 289-96, 1910.
Author discusses dissatisfaction of children with school life. Shows the relation of debilitated, mentally unstable, and nervous children to school life.

493. **Hemprich, K.** Zur literatur über jugendfürsorge und jugendrettung. (Beitr. z. kinderforsch. u. heilerziehung 51. H.) Langensalza, Beyer, 1908. 27 p.

494. **Herzfelder, H.** Die fürsorge für unterstandslose jugend in Wien. Zsch. f. kinderschutz und jugendfürsorge, 3: 10-14, 47-51, 1911.

495. **Heymann, O.** Das schwerhörige kind im schulpflichtigen alter. Dresden, 1909. 16 p.

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497. **Kalischer, ———.** Untersuchung zurückgebliebener schulkinder. Deut. med. wochenschrft., nr. 1, p. 14-15, 1898.
Author was assisted by eye, throat, and ear specialists. Out of 10,132 children only 255 (2½ per cent) were examined. Short summary of results given.

498. **Kielhorn, Heinrich.** Erziehung und unterricht schwachbefähigter kinder. Hilfsschullehrplan. Halle a. S., Carl Marhold, 1909. 114 p. 8°.

Author is school inspector and principal of the auxiliary school for exceptional children. Treats in detail of the curriculum of auxiliary schools.

499. **Koller, A.** Die zählung der geistig gebrechlichen kinder des schulpflichtigen alters im kanton Appenzell a. Rh. Ztschr. f. d. erforsch. u. behandl. d. jugendl. schwachsinns (Jena) 4: 289, 385, 1910.

500. **Krenberger, S.** Das unterrichtsziel bei schwachsinnigen und der unterrichtsstoff in der vorschule. Eos, 2: 188–98, 1906.

The backward child is weak in power of attention and volition. Methods of awakening attention given. Opinions of specialists cited.

501. Laboratoire de pédagogie normale (Paris). L'année psychologique. v. 12. Paris, Masson, 1908. p. 1 and 233.

Gives details as to the purpose of this laboratory. See also Bulletin de la société libre pour l'étude psychologique de l'enfant, December, 1906. Paris, Alcan, 1906.

502. **Lange, V.** Om en hyppig forekommende aarsag til børns langsomme og mangelfulde aandelige udvikling. Kjøbenhavn, 1892.

On a frequent cause of slow and defective development of children.

503. ——— Ueber eine häufig vorkommende ursache von dem langsamen und mangelhaften geistigen entwickelung der kinder. v. 30. Berlin, 1893. p. 131–34, 165–68.

Discusses (1) Defective respiration through the nose; (2) thick nasal pronunciation; (3) defective hearing. Photograph of a special type studied.

504. **Laquer, Leopold.** Die ärztliche feststellung der verschiedenen formen des schwachsinns in den ersten schuljahren. München, Otto Gmelin, 1909. 37 p. 8°.

Author is specialist in nervous diseases and health officer in Frankfort. He gives detailed schedule for recording data in special (auxiliary) schools in Frankfort and Dusseldorf.

505. ——— Ueber schwachsinnige schulkinder. Saml. aus d. gebiete d. nerv. u. geisteskrnk., 4: 3–44, 1902.

Reception and observation of feeble-minded children in normal schools. Schedule for observation of Frankfort school children who are feeble-minded. Passage from normal schools to auxiliary schools. Fate of such children after leaving school. Short bibliography; also a reprint.

506. **Laurent, A.** De l'hygiène préscolaire au point de vue de l'arriération mentale. Paris, Paulin, ——.

Prevention of mental backwardness; prenatal and postnatal prophylaxy.

507. ——— L'enfance anormale. Educateur moderne (Paris) p. 5–19, January 1912.

Author discusses provisions for abnormal children considered at 12th French congress of medicine held at Lyons. Gives opinions of numerous French specialists.

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509. **Lehm, Kurt.** Gedanken zur abteilung "hilfsschule" der Internationalen hygiene-ausstellung Dresden, 1911. Ztschr. f. kinderforschung, 17: 54–62, 1911.

Gives list of pictures and instruments of precision. Statistics of diseases in auxiliary schools; stigmata and deformities.

510. **Le Roy des Barres, M.** Les arriérés. Contribution clinique, Paris, 1909. 8°.

511. **Ley, Auguste.** L'arriération mentale. Contribution à l'étude de la pathologie infantile. Bruxelles, J. Lebegue, 1904.

Fundamental original study of juvenile pathology of exceptional children, including anthropometry, pathological stigmata, psycho-nervous symptoms, organs of motor centers, medical direction, and organization of special schools. Gives a summary of results from extensive series of experiments. Author makes an extended study of the Binet tests, and finds them of practical value.

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Concrete types given. Discusses classification; medical backward, pedagogical backward; active and passive. Bibliography.

513. **Ley, Auguste.** Instabilité mentale et inadaptation au régime scolaire. Jour. de neurol. (Paris) 15: 121–25, 1910.

Intensive study of an unruly boy and his environment; psychological analysis of him.

514. ——— Le rôle du psychologue dans l'éducation des enfants normaux et anormaux. Arch. de neurol. (Paris) 2: 409–12, 1909.

Classification of children mentally.

515. **Liebmann, A.** Die untersuchung und behandlung geistig zurückgebliebener kinder. Berlin. Berlinische verlagsanstalt, 1898. 36 p.

516. **Lobsien, M.** Ueber schwankungen der psychischen jahreskurve bei schulkindern. Zsch. f. phil. u. päd., 15: 261–70, 1908.

517. **Lublinerowa, Eugenia.** Szko la dla dzieci nildorozwinietych; jej zadania, s'roaki rezultaty. Zdrowie (Warsaw) 633–40, 1910.

Describes school for backward children. Its objects and results given.

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Results of studies on Washington (D. C.) school children—the unruly, lazy, sickly, and defective.

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545. Projet de loi ayant pour objet la création de classes de perfectionnement annexées aux écoles élémentaires publiques et d'écoles autonomes de perfectionnement pour les enfants anormaux. Arch. de neurol. (Paris) 2: 286–95, 1907.

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550. **Roland,** ———. De l'action morale de l'école de perfectionnement. Poitou méd. (Poitiers) 27: 268–71, 1911.

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554. **Rousson,** *Mme.* La pédagogie scientifique. Année psychologique, 12: 271, 1906.

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582. ——— "Intelligenzproblem und schule" auf dem Dresdner kongress. Ztschr. f. kinderforschung, 17: 193–208, 1912.
Gives general discussion of subject; also views of different authorities in Germany.

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Comparison between the backward and the ordinary pupils. Scale of knowledge in arithmetic of ordinary pupils at different ages. Results of classification. Examples of compositions written; questions asked.

585. ——— Société libre pour l'étude psychologique de l'enfant. Bulletin de mars 1907. Paris, Alcan.

Degrees of ability in reading.

586. VIII Verbandstag der hilfsschulen Deutschlands. Zsch. f. schulgesundheitspflege, 24: 431–34, 1911.

Gives account of the meeting and principal subjects discussed.

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A scientific treatment of forms of mental defect in children.

588. **Voisin, F.** Applications de la physiologie du cerveau à l'étude des enfants qui nécessitent une éducation spéciale. Examen de cette question. Quel mode d'éducation faut-il adopter pour les enfants qui sortent de la ligne ordinaire et forment communément la pépinière des aliénés des grands hommes, etc. Paris, 1830. 56 p. 8°.

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594. ——— Zur lehrplanfrage in der hilfsschule. Zsch. f. kinderforschung, 17: 342–48, 1912.

595. **Weygandt, W.** Leicht abnorme kinder. Halle, C, Marthold, 1905. 40 p.

596. **Zauck, C.** Sonderklassen für hervorragend begabte schüler. Päd. ztng., 41: 109–12, February 15, 1912.

Discussion of objections to special classes for gifted pupils.

597. **Ziehen, Th.** Die erkennung des schwachsinns in kindesalter. Berlin, Karger, 1909. 32 p.

Author is director of the clinic for insanity and nervous diseases in Berlin. A fundamental article. Gives physical symptoms and mental signs of feeble-mindedness in children.

598. **Ziemke, E.** Die beurteilung jugendlicher schwachsinniger vor gericht. Zsch. f. kinderforschung, 17: 329–48, 1911.

599. **Zollinger, F.** Kreisschreiben an die primar- und sekundarschulpflegen betreffend fürsorge für bedürftige schulkinder. Amtliches schulblatt des kantons Zürich, 26; 290–313, 1911.

600. Zum Ausbau der hilfsschule. Zsch. f. kinderforschung, 16: 232–36, 263–73, 1911.

Discusses the entrance of feeble-minded into the auxiliary schools.

IV. PERIODICALS.

601. **L'Année psychologique.** Edited by Alfred Binet with the collaboration of Largnier des Bancels and Th. Símon. Published by Masson et cie., Libraire de l'académie de médecine, 120 Boulevard Saint Germain, Paris.

See especially all volumes beginning with 1901.

602. **Bibliothéque d'éducation spéciale.** Edited by Dr. Bournevilles. Published since 1891 by Progrès médical, Paris.

603. **Bulletin de la Société libre pour l'étude psychologique de l'enfant.** Paris.

604. **Bulletin trimestriel de la société protectrice de l'enfance anormale.** Published in Charleroi, Belgium.

605. **The Child.** A monthly journal devoted to child welfare. Published by John Bale, sons and Danielsson, London.

606. **L'Enfance anormale.** Edited by L. Grandvilliers in Meyzieu (Isère). Published by the French national committee for the study of abnormal childhood.

607. **Enzyklopädisches handbuch der heilpädagogik unter mitwerkung zahlreicher am erziehungswerke interessierter ärzte und pädagogen.** Halle a. S., Carl Marhold, Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1911. 1974 p.

A systematic work by many specialists on subjects that concern both teacher and physician.

608. **Eos.** Quarterly journal devoted to knowledge and treatment of abnormal children. Published by Anton Druschba, S. Kreuberger [etc.] Press of Karl Graeser & co., Vienna and Leipzig.

609. **Heilpädagogische schul- und elternzeitung.**

610. **Die Hilfsschule.** Published by Carl Marhold, Halle, a. S., Germany.

A monthly publication concerning all matters relative to auxiliary schools and their teachers.

611. **La Infancia anormal.** Published by Paria since 1907, in four numbers yearly, Madrid.

612. **The Journal of educational psychology including experimental pedagogy, child physiology and hygiene and educational statistics.** Published monthly except July and August, Warwick and York, Inc., Baltimore, Md.

This journal is a clearing house of information for all matters that concern the relation of psychology to education.

613. **Journal of psycho-asthenics.** Devoted to the care, training and treatment of the feeble-minded and epileptic. Published quarterly by the Press of the Minnesota school for feeble-minded and colony for epileptic, Faribault, Minn.

614. **Kalendar für lehrer und lehrerinnen an schulen und anstalten für geistig schwäche.** Published since 1905 by K. G. Th. Scheffer, Leipzig, Germany.

615. **Nyt tidsskrift for abnormvaesenet omfattende aandsswage- blinde-og vanföre-sagen in Norden.** Published yearly ten times in Copenhagen, Denmark.

616. **The Psychological clinic.** A journal for the study and treatment of mental retardation and deviation; edited by Lightner Witmer. Published by Psychological clinic press, Philadelphia.

First number appeared in March, 1907. Published primarily in the interest of a large class of children who manifest different degrees of retardation in mental and moral development. It presents the results of investigations conducted mainly through examination and treatment of individual mental and moral peculiarities. It will also take cognizance of all forms of special work for mentally and physically defective children and juvenile delinquents and dependents. Of interest to physicians, social workers, psychologists, and educators. The following important articles appeared in 1907:

A method for determining the extent and causes of retardation in a city school system, by J. E. Bryan. The fifteen months' training of a feeble-minded child, by Lightner Witmer. Public day schools for backward children, by C. H. Town. Need for special classes in the public schools, by J. D. Heilman. Mental condition of juvenile delinquents, by I. H. Coriat. Retardation through neglect in children of the rich, by Lightner Witmer.

617. **Tidsskrift for abnormskolorna i Finnland.** Published since 1890 in Helsingfors, Finland.

618. **The Training school.** Published monthly, except July and August, Vineland, N. J.

    Devoted to the interests of children requiring special care and training. The organ of the Training school for backward and feeble-minded children, Vineland, N. J. (About sixteen pages per number.)

619. **Zeitschrift für die erforschung und behandlung des jugendlichen schwachsinns.** Published by Gustave Fischer, Jena, Germany.

620. **Zeitschrift für kinderforschung, mit besonderer berücksichtigung der pädagogischen pathologie.** Published by Beyer and sons, Langensalza, Germany.

621. **Zeitschrift für kinderschutz und jugendfürsorge.** Published by the Zentralstelle für kinderschutz und jugendfürsorge, Vienna.

622. **Zeitschrift für pädagogische psychologie und experimentelle pädagogik.** Published by E. Meumann and O. Scheibner. Press of Quelle and Meyer, Leipzig, Germany.

AUTHOR INDEX.

Abadie, 422-23.
Abelson, A. R., 1-2.
Abbott, Edith, 42.
Adams, A. C., 3.
Addams, Jane, 4.
Aley, R. J., 5.
Alexejeff, W. G., 424.
Alger, E. M., 6.
Allen, E. E., 7.
Allen, W. H., 8.
Andemard, 426.
Anderson, Meta L., 9.
Apert, E., 425.
Arnold, F., 10.
Atwood, C. E., 11.
Ayres, L. P., 12-22, 355.

Baltimore. Board of school commissioners, 378-379.
Barnes, E., 23.
Barracelli, S. E., 428.
Bayerthal, 429.
Becker, S. C., 24.
Bell, C. F., 25.
Bell, J. C., 26.
Benda, T., 430.
Berkhan, Oswald, 431.
Berry, M., 27.
Biesalski, K., 432.
Binet, Alfred, 433-445.
Bingham, C. D. 28.
Bivin, W. S., 29.
Blake, V. J., 30.
Blan, L. B., 31.
Blewett, Ben., 32.
Bligh, M., 33.
Blin, 446.
Bliss, D. C., 34-35.
Bobbitt, J. F., 36.
Bobertag, O., 447-448.
Boehme, G. M., 37.
Boger, J., 449.
Boggs, A. U., 38.
Bohannon, E. W., 39.
Bonham, M. L., 40.
Boodstein, O., 450.
Boulanger, 466.
Bourneville, 451.
Brandt, F. B., 41.
Breckinridge, S. P., 6.
Brooks, S. D., 43-44.
Brown, Claude, 45.
Brown, William, 47.
Bruner, F. G., 48-51.
Bryan, J. E., 52.
Büttner, G., 452.
Burt, C., 53.
Button, L. L., 54.

Caillard, 453.
Camden (N. J.). Board of education, 380.
Cameron, Norman, 55.
Campbell, M. R., 56-59.
Carter, M. H., 61.
Cassel, J., 454.
Chancellor, W. E., 62-63.
Channing, W., 64-65.
Chase, L. G., 66-68.
Cheny, F. E., 69.
Chicago. Board of education, 381.
Cincinnati. Board of, education, 382.
Chrisman, Oscar, 70.
Clark, I. H., 71.
Clarke, C. K., 72.
Claxton, Lileon, 73.
Cleveland (Ohio). Superintendent of schools, 383.
Coffin, Ernest W., 74.
Collard, Charles, 455.
Columbus (Ohio). Board of education, 384.
Cornell, W. S., 76-79, 251.
Cornman, O. P., 75.
Courgey, 456.
Covington (Ky.). Board of education, 385.
Crampton, C. W., 80.
Crockett, E. A., 81.
Cruchet, R., 457-459.
Cummings, E. P., 82.
Curtis, E. W., 83.

Damaye, H., 460.
Daniel, 472.
Davidson, P. E., 84.
Decatur (Ill.). Board of education, 386.
Decroly, O., 461-469, 471.
De Forest, J. L., 85.
Degand, J., 467-469.
Demoor, 470-472.
Denver (Colo.). City and county of Denver, 387.
Descoeudres, A., 473.
Deitrich, J., 8.
Detroit (Mich.). Board of education, 388.
District of Columbia. Board of education, 389.
Doll, L. M., 87.
Dorr, R. C., 92.
Douglas, A. S., 88.
Down, R. L., 89.
Downes, F. E., 90.
Downing, B. C., 91.
Drouard, 474.

Dubois, 475.
Dukes, C., 93.
Dupureux, 476.
Dutton, C. F., 94.
Dutton, S. T., 95.
Dwyer, R. M., 96.

Ebbinhaus, H., 477.
Edson, A. W., 97-99.
Elmslie, R. C., 100-101.
Elson, W. H., 102.
Erie (Pa.) Public schools, 390.
Esten, *Mrs.* R. A., 103.
Ettmayr, A., 478.

Faith, T., 105.
Falkner, R. P., 106-108.
Farrell, E. E., 109-112.
Feltsman, O. B., 479.
Fernald, W. E., 113-114.
Férraud, L. J. B., 480.
Flexner, Mary, 115.
Forbes, D., 10.
Fornaca, G., 481.
Fort, S. J., 117.
Foster, J. E., 118.
Francis, C. H., 10.
Frazier, C. R., 120.

Gallo, G., 482.
Gayler, G. W., 121.
Glogau, Otto, 122.
Goddard, H. H., 123-135.
Godtfsing, O., 483.
Göbelbecker, L. F., 484.
Goldsmith, E. M., 136.
Gommès, M., 485.
Goodhart, S. P., 137-138.
Gossett, J. O., 139.
Gracheva, 486.
Grand Rapids (Mich.). Board of education, 391.
Gray, M. R., 141.
Great Britain. Board of education, 142-146; Local government board, 147; Royal commission on the care and control of the feeble-minded, 148-149.
Greene, M. C., 150.
Greenwood, Allen, 151.
Greenwood, J. M., 152.
Gregory, A. E., 153.
Groszmann, M. P. E., 154-158, 487
Groszmann, W. H., 159.
Gruhle, 488.
Gulick, L. H., 160-161.

Hall, Bert, 162.
Hall, F. H., 163.
Hall, G. S., 164.
Hamilton, W. J., 165.
Hamon du Fougeray, 489.
Haney, J. P., 166.
Harcourt, Charles, 167.
Harris, W. T., 168.
Harrisburg (Pa.). Board of school directors, 392.
Hartford (Conn.). Board of school visitors, 393.
Heeter, S. L., 169.
Hefferan, H. M., 170
Heilmann, A., 490.
Heilman, J. D., 171-1
Heller, I., 491.
Heller, Theodore, 492.
Hemprich, K., 493.
Henderson, C. R., 173.
Herzfelder, H., 494.
Heymann, O., 495.
Hicks, V. C., 174.
Hill, H. F., 135.
Holmes, Arthur, 175.
Holmes, W. H., 176-177.
Hubertson, L. G., 496.
Huey E. B., 179-181.
Hughes, R. E., 182.

Indiana. Department of public instruction, 183.
Indiana town and city superintendents' association. Committee on delinquent and dependent children, etc., 15.
Indianapolis (Ind.). Board of school committee, 394.

James, 185.
Johnson, G. E., 163.
Johnston, K. L., 186-187.
Johnstone, E. R., 188-192.
Jones, E. E., 193.
Jones, H. E., 194.
Jones, Olive, 195.
Jones, W. F., 196.

Kalischer, 497.
Kelly, R. L., 197.
Kerr, James, 198.
Kielhorn, Heinrich, 498.
Kingsley, S. C., 199.
Kirby, L. A., 200.
Kirk, J. R., 201.
Kirkbride, F. B., 202.
Kirkpatrick, E. A., 203.
Koller, A., 499.
Krenberger, S., 500.
Kruesi, W. E., 204.
Kulhmann, F., 205-206.

Lambert, J., 116.
Lange, V., 502-503.
Lapage, C. P., 207.
Laquer, Leopold, 504-505.
Laurent, A., 506-507.
Lausies, 508.
Lawson, H. S., 208.
Lo Favre, Caroline, 209
Legarde, Ellen, 210.
Lehm, Kurt, 509.
Le Roy des Barres, M., 510.
Ley, Auguste, 511-514.
Liebmann, A., 515.
Lincoln, D. F., 211-212.
Lipmann, O., 213.
Lloyd, R. J., 214.
Lobsien, M., 516.
London county council. Education committee, 215-217.
Lord, M. D., 218.
Los Angeles (Cal.). Board of education, 395.
Lublinerowa, Eugenia, 517.
Luckey, G. W. A., 219.
Lurton, F. E., 220-221.
Lynch, E.F., 222.
Lynn (Mass.). School department, 396.

Macatee, H. L., 223.
McCarthy, D. J., 224.
McCowen, Mary, 225.
McCready, E. B., 226–229.
MacDonald, Arthur, 230–232, 518–519.
MacMillan, S. P., 233.
Macmurchy, Helen, 234.
McMurtie, D. C., 235.
Macy, M. S., 321.
Madison (Wis.). Public schools, 397.
Maennel, B., 236, 520.
Maguire, M. E., 237.
Mahony, J. J., 238.
Makuen, G. H., 239–241.
Manchester (N. H.). School committee, 398.
Martindale, W. C., 242.
Massip, S., 521.
Meleney, C. E., 243.
Mensy, 523.
Meumann Ernst, 244, 525–526.
Meylan, George, 245.
Miller, C. A. A. J., 246–247.
Mills, H. B., 248.
Milwaukee (Wis.). Board of school directors, 399.
Minneapolis (Minn.). Board of education, 400.
Monroe, W. S., 250.
Montesano, G., 528.
Montolin, M. de, 529.
Morselli, E., 530.
Münch, Wilhelm, 531.
Munroe, J. P., 249.
Murphy, J. P., 251.

Nadejke, 532.
Nalder, F. F., 252.
Naray-Szabo, A. von, 533.
Nash, E. D., 253.
National association for the study and education of exceptional children, 254–255.
National conference on the education of backward, truant, and delinquent children, 256.
National council of education. Committee on provision for exceptional children in the public schools, 257.
National education association of the United States. Department of special education, 258–259; Department of superintendence, 260; National council of education, 261–263.
Neal, A. O., 264.
Neukirchner, 534.
Neustaedter, M., 265.
New Jersey State teachers' association, 266–267.
New York City. Department of education, 268, 401.
Newark (N. J.). Board of education, 402.
Newmayer, S. W., 269.
Nibecker, F. H., 270.
Nodes, F. M., 271.
Nosworthy, Naomi, 272–273.
Noyes, W. B., 274.

Oakland (Cal). Public schools, 403.
O'Hagen, Anne, 275.

Padró, Luis, 535.
Page, La F., 277.
Patterson, W. B., 278.
Paul-Boncour, G., 536, 540.
Payne, I. D., 279.
Pearse, C. G., 280–284.
Pearson, K., 285.
Pereira, F., 537.
Perrens, C. D. J., 538.
Perry, C. S., 286.
Petzholdt, Joseph, 539.
Philadelphia (Pa.). Board of education, 404; Teachers' association, 287.
Philippe, J., 540–541.
Phillips, B. A., 288.
Phillips, D. E., 289.
Pietzsch, A., 542.
Pizzoli, U., 543.
Pope, F. M., 290.
Portland (Oreg.). Board of directors, 405.
Pototzky, C., 544.
Potts, W. A., 291.
Powell, F. M., 292.
Providence (R. I.). School committee, 406.
Prussia, Ministerium des Innern, 546.

Reading (Pa.). Board of education, 407.
Régis, E., 547–548.
Reinfelder, D., 549.
Richman, Julia, 295–298.
Rochester (N. Y.). Board of education, 408–409.
Rogers, A. C., 299–300.
Roland, 550–552.
Rothert, H. W., 301.
Rouma, G., 553.
Rousson, *Mme.*, 554.
Royster, L. T., 302.
Russell, E. H., 303.

Sabin, Henry, 304.
Sadler, M. E., 305.
St. Louis (Mo.). Board of education, 306, 410.
St. Paul (Minn.). Board of school inspectors, 411.
Sakaki, Y., 307.
Salt Lake City (Utah). Board of education, 412–413.
Santo de Sanctis, 555–557.
Savage, G. H., 308.
Schauer, Richard, 558.
Schenectady (N. Y.). Board of education, 414.
Schlesinger, Eugen, 559–563.
Schmitt, Clara, 309.
Scholz, L., 565.
Scotland. Education department, 310.
Seattle (Wash.). Board of directors, 415.
Seguin, Edward, 311.
Seiffert, 567.
Séris, J., 568.
Shattuck, G. B., 312.
Sherlock, E. B., 313.
Shields, T. E., 314.
Shoemaker, Harlan, 315.
Shrubsall, F. C., 316.
Shuttleworth, G. E., 317–319.
Simon, 570–571.
Simon, T., 440–445.
Sinell, 572.
Smart, I. T., 320–321.
Smith, M. K., 322–323.
Snedden, D. S., 95, 324–325.
Somerville (Mass.). School committee, 416.
Sommer, Robert, 573.

Squire, C. R., 326.
Stableton, J. K., 327
Stahlin, O., 574.
Stark, B. L., 328.
Sterling, E. B., 329.
Stern, W., 330.
Steward, S. J., 331.
Stillman, M. A., 332.
Story, A. J., 333.
Strümpell, L., 576.
Szidon, K. G., 577.

Taylor, D. M., 336.
Telford, E. D., 337.
Terman, Lewis M., 338–339.
Tews, J., 578.
Thoma, E., 579.
Thorndike, E. L., 340.
Thulie, 580.
Topeka (Kans.). Board of education, 417.
Town, C. H., 341–342.
Tredgold, A. F., 344–345.
Treloar, W. P., 346.
Trenton (N. J.). Board of education, 418.
Trüper, Johannes, 347, 581–582.
Turnbull, C. S., 348.
Twitmyer, G. W., 349.

Uffenheimer, Albert, 583.
Unrich, Flora, 350.
Utica (N. Y.). School committee, 351.

Van Denburg, J. K., 352.
Van Sickle, J. H., 353–355.
Vaney, V., 584–585.
Vessie, P. R., 356.
Vinton, M. M., 357.
Voght, H., 587.
Voisin, F., 588.

Wagner, A. E., 358.
Wahl, 589.
Wahrer, C. F., 359.
Wallin, J. E. W., 360–362.
Ward, L. F., 363.
Warner, F., 364.
Washington (D. C.). Board of education, 419.
Washington educational association, 365.
Wegener, 590.
Weigert, 591.
Weigl, Franz, 592.
Weiss, Rud., 593–594.
Weygandt, W., 587, 595.
Whipple, G. M., 366.
Wilber, H. L., 367.
Williams, R. P., 368.
Wilmarth, A. W., 369.
Winch, W. H., 370.
Witmer, Lightner, 355, 371–374.
Wood, F. T. H., 375.
Woonsocket (R. I.). School committee, 420.
Worcester (Mass.). School committee, 421.

Yoder, A. H., 376.

Zauck, C., 596.
Zentler, Arthur, 377.
Ziehen, Th., 597.
Ziemke, E., 598.
Zollinger, F., 599.

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STATISTICS OF STATE UNIVERSITIES AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION PARTIALLY SUPPORTED BY THE STATE

FOR THE YEAR ENDED
JUNE 30, 1912

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

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STATISTICS OF STATE UNIVERSITIES AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION PARTIALLY SUPPORTED BY THE STATE, FOR THE YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1912.

This annual bulletin, formerly prepared and published by the National Association of State Universities, has been published by the Bureau of Education for the past four years. The data given are taken from reports received from the offices of the presidents of the various institutions, and the figures printed are substantially as given in those reports. Apparent errors have been called to the attention of the authorities making the report and opportunity given for correction. In the preparation of these bulletins the bureau makes no investigation, but simply tabulates the returns as reported by the several institutions.

CHANGES IN COURSES AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

Alabama Polytechnic Institute.—Requirements for admission have been raised to three years of high-school preparation or 12 units of high-school work or equivalent, effective September, 1912. A special two-year course in applied electricity has been added.

University of Alabama.—Requirements for admission increased to 14 units of high-school work and a certificate of recommendation from the principal.

University of Arizona.—Requirements for admission have been reduced from 15½ to 15 units. A new degree of B. S. in commerce is offered. A new elementary course in bacteriology is announced.

University of Colorado.—A school of social and home service, a university extension department, and a school of pharmacy have been established. The beginning of a State hygienic laboratory and the appointment of a professor of preventive and experimental medicine are announced.

Colorado School of Mines.—A new course in applied chemistry is offered.

University of Florida.—In 1913 entrance requirements will be raised from 12 to 15 units.

Florida State College for Women.—An extension worker in home economics has been placed in the field. In 1912–13 short courses will be offered in home economics. In 1911–12 the curriculum was so organized that the degree of bachelor of music is granted. The course in the normal school was lengthened one year.

University of Idaho.—The entrance requirements were modified to accord with the report adopted by the secondary department of the National Education Association, 1911.

Purdue University (*Indiana*).—A summer school for teachers in public school service was opened June 17, 1912, and continued five weeks. Instruction was offered in agriculture, domestic science, and manual training, the purpose being to perfect teachers of experience in the methods of teaching these subjects in rural schools.

Louisiana State University.—The requirements for entrance to the freshman class were raised from 12 to 14 units at the beginning of the session. A department of public speaking was established. A new course of study was arranged for students who wish to become teachers of agriculture in the high schools of Louisiana. The course of study of the law school, leading to the degree of LL. B., was extended from two to three years.

Massachusetts Agricultural College.—A system of major subjects was established. Beginning with September, 1912, each member of the junior class will be required to elect one of the major subjects offered.

University of Michigan.—For admission to the department of literature, science, and the arts, units in agriculture, domestic science, manual training, and commercial branches are now accepted. Admission requirements of the department of law have been raised to include at least one year of college work. Admission to the Homeopathic Medical College, beginning with 1912–13, will be conditioned upon the completion of one year of college work. A subdepartment of engineering mechanics was created in the department of engineering. A "graduate department" succeeds the "graduate school." University extension has been added.

University of Minnesota.—Students entering hereafter must satisfy certain group and scholarship requirements common to all the colleges admitting students direct from the high school. Extension work has been reorganized to include evening classes, correspondence courses, etc.

University of Montana.—New features: A law school, requiring two years of college work for admission, and offering a three-year course for the degree of LL. B.; summer school; first year of granting university certificate of qualification to teach, valid in Montana high schools.

University of Nebraska.—In September, 1912, the minimum requirements for conditional admission were raised from 24 to 28 credit points.

University of Nevada.—The preparatory department has been abolished.

New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.—A department of forestry has been established.

Cornell University (*New York*).—The degree of bachelor of science in agriculture has been changed to bachelor of science. A new degree, master in landscape design, is now offered. The entrance requirements in the colleges of mechanical engineering, civil engineering, and agriculture were so modified as to permit the acceptance of 3 units in any one of the following languages: Latin, Greek, French, German, Spanish, or Italian.

North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.—Requirements for admission were raised to 8 units.

North Dakota Agricultural College.—Entrance requirements were raised to 15 units. The high-school course was extended to four years; the subpreparatory course was abandoned.

University of North Dakota.—The teachers' college was reorganized as a school of education. The regular course of the school of law was extended from two to three years. A summer course in library science was added.

University of Porto Rico.—A full four-year undergraduate course of study has been established, with short courses of one year, summer courses, and special courses of four weeks.

South Carolina Military Academy.—Requirements for admission were raised to 10 units.

University of South Dakota.—The preparatory school has been eliminated, but a subfreshman group of studies is retained for graduates of three-year high schools.

University of Texas.—Three new departments in the college of arts have been created, namely, domestic science, business training, and Semitics.

Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.—The school year was divided into two terms instead of three, as heretofore. The work of the college has been separated into two schools, the school of agriculture and the school of engineering.

Agricultural College of Utah.—A course in agricultural engineering is now offered.

University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.—The college of medicine now requires one year of college work for admission. Tropical medicine has been added to the medical college curriculum.

Virginia Polytechnic Institute.—Entrance requirements were raised from 10 to 14 units, to take effect in 1914. Courses in agricultural engineering and chemical engineering have been added.

State College of Washington.—The department of elementary science has been made to assume more the function of a technical secondary school, particularly in agricultural lines. A summer school for teachers has been established, in which the subjects taught are agriculture, horticulture, home economics, and mechanical arts.

GIFTS, BUILDINGS, AND IMPROVEMENTS.

University of Arizona.—A new dormitory for men has been built, costing $28,000; improvements on the campus cost $12,500.

University of Arkansas.—A $40,000 building, the gift of the Peabody Board, is under construction for the department of education.

University of Colorado.—A $10,000 electrical testing laboratory has been constructed.

Colorado School of Mines.—The completion of the experimental ore-dressing and metallurgical plant is announced.

University of Florida.—A gift of $40,000 has been received from the Peabody Board for a building for the department of education, to be known as George Peabody Hall.

University of Georgia.—The Peabody Board gave $40,000 for the new school of education building. The Phelps Stokes Trustees donated $12,500 for a fellowship yielding $500 per annum; $600 for a scholarship fund was received from P. S. Arkwright, of Atlanta, Ga.

College of Hawaii.—An appropriation of $75,000 was made by the legislature of 1911 from the loan fund, for the erection of a permanent building. The building has been completed, and with its permanent quarters the college is enabled to render better and more general service.

University of Indiana.—Improvements: Biology building completed, costing $80,000; university waterworks system installed, costing $35,000.

Purdue University (*Indiana*).—A $100,000 library building is in process of erection.

Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.—A new domestic technology building was formally dedicated May 1. A new veterinary plant, costing $150,000, has been completed. A new gymnasium, to be completed this year, will cost about $150,000.

Iowa State Teachers College.—A training-school building is in process of erection, to cost $150,000.

State University of Kentucky.—A gift of $40,000 has been received from the Peabody fund.

Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.—A building was set aside for the use of the Young Men's Christian Association. A new laboratory was fitted up in the basement of the physics building. A new athletic field was graded, fenced, and provided with seats. House and lots adjacent to the campus were purchased for $4,253.

Maryland Agricultural College.—A new Bischoff sewage disposal plant was installed, costing $5,500.

University of Michigan.—The Hill Auditorium, to seat 5,500 persons, is nearing completion. This building is the result of the $200,000 bequest from the late Regent Arthur Hill. To this sum the university added about $75,000. A new heating plant, a storehouse and shop building, and a system of fire protection are other additions to the university now in progress.

University of Minnesota.—Five buildings have been erected on the new campus during the past two years. All have been completed, at a total cost, including equipment, of $1,236,400.

University of Mississippi.—Received from Peabody fund for an educational building, $40,000.

University of Missouri.—Buildings and other permanent improvements completed: New dairy barn, $12,000; new machine shop, $15,000; addition to veterinary building, $20,000; Parker Hall (library and assembly hall at Rolla), $65,000. In course of construction: Physics building, $100,000; agricultural chemistry building, $60,000; education building (experimental elementary school), $5,000; steam pipe line to new buildings, $15,000.

University of Nevada.—In May, 1912, the mining department of this institution, officially known as the Mackay School of Mines, received an endowment fund consisting of 1,500 shares of stock in the Mackay companies, valued at $150,000 and bearing 4 per cent interest. The income, $6,000 a year, will be devoted to the expenses of instruction in the mining school. The stock was presented by Mrs. John W. Mackay and Mr. Clarence H. Mackay.

New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.—A new horse barn of wood has been erected, costing $6,500. The Hoitt property, consisting of a tract of about 13 acres with several buildings thereon and located adjacent to the main college buildings, has been purchased for $12,500.

New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.—A building for gymnasium and armory purposes was built during the year, costing $18,000.

North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.—Erected: One barn, costing $1,863; foreman's farmhouse, costing $750.

University of Oklahoma.—The medical school during the past year acquired a fine modern hospital. A new $200,000 administration hall was occupied in February. The construction of the $125,000 law building is progressing rapidly.

Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.—A commodious stock-judging building has been completed, costing $1,500. A new chapel or auditorium is nearing completion; seating capacity, 2,200; cost, $84,000. Material additions have been made to the chemistry building and to the creamery building.

Oregon Agricultural College.—Since June, 1911, the following buildings and improvements have been made or authorized: Horticultural building, costing $43,000; dairy building, costing $33,000; mines building, costing $30,000; farm mechanics building, costing $15,000; live stock judging pavilion, costing $40,000; foundry and shop building, costing $10,000.

Pennsylvania State College.—Acquisitions: An engineering shop, costing $20,000; a gift of a wireless telegraph tower and station; a large tract of farm land; a spring adjacent to the college property.

University of Porto Rico.—A building for assembly hall, girls' gymnasium, and cadet armory has been completed and put in use; cost, $10,000. At the university plant at Mayaguez, devoted to the college of agriculture, a dean and faculty have been in residence during the last half of the year. The college building, costing $30,000, is well along toward completion.

Rhode Island State College.—Contracts were let for a science building, to cost from $95,000 to $100,000. The building will be ready for occupancy in August, 1913.

Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.—Acquisitions: One new dormitory, costing $75,000; electrical engineering building, costing $75,000; steam plant, costing $50,000.

Washington State College.—A residence for the president, to cost $25,000, is in process of construction on the campus. Two barns, costing $2,500 each, have been constructed on the farm.

University of Wyoming.—All that is left of the tax levy for 1911–12 for current expenses will be used toward the erection of a new building to be known as Agricultural Hall. A house was purchased for a president's residence.

Directory of State universities and other State-aided institutions of higher education.[1]

[Names in *italics* are institutions endowed by Federal Government under Morrill Acts.]

	Location.	Name.	President.
1	Auburn, Ala	*Alabama Polytechnic Institute*	Charles C. Thach, LL. D.
2	University, Ala	University of Alabama	George H. Denny, LL. D.
3	Tucson, Ariz	*University of Arizona*	Arthur H. Wilde, Ph. D.
4	Fayetteville, Ark	*University of Arkansas*	J. H. Reynolds, acting.
5	Berkeley, Cal	*University of California*	Benj. Ide Wheeler, LL. D.
6	Boulder, Colo	University of Colorado	James H. Baker, LL. D.
7	Fort Collins, Colo	*Colorado State Agricultural College*	Chas. A. Lory, M. S.
8	Golden, Colo	Colorado School of Mines	Victor C. Alderson, Sc. D.
9	Greeley, Colo	State Teachers College of Colorado	Zachariah X. Snyder.
10	Storrs, Conn	*Connecticut Agricultural College*	C. H. Beach, B. S.
11	Newark, Del	*Delaware College*	Geo. A. Harter, Ph. D.
12	Gainesville, Fla	*University of Florida*	Albert A. Murphree, LL. D.
13	Tallahassee, Fla	Florida State College for Women	Edward Conradi, Ph. D.
14	Athens, Ga	*University of Georgia*	David C. Barrow, LL. D., chancellor.
15	Atlanta, Ga	Georgia School of Technology	Kenneth G. Matheson, LL. D.
16	Dahlonega, Ga	North Georgia Agricultural College	G. R. Glenn, LL. D.
17	Honolulu, Hawaii	*College of Hawaii*	John G. Gilmore, M. S. A.
18	Moscow, Idaho	*University of Idaho*	James A. MacLean, LL. D.
19	Urbana, Ill	*University of Illinois*	Edmund J. James, LL. D.
20	Bloomington, Ind	Indiana University	William L. Bryan, LL. D.
21	Lafayette, Ind	*Purdue University*	W. E. Stone, LL. D.
22	Ames, Iowa	*Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.*	Raymond A. Pearson, LL. D.
23	Cedar Falls, Iowa	Iowa State Teachers College	Homer H. Seerley, LL. D.
24	Iowa City, Iowa	State University of Iowa	John G. Bowman, M. A.
25	Lawrence, Kans	University of Kansas	Frank Strong, LL. D.
26	Manhattan, Kans	*Kansas State Agricultural College*	Henry J. Waters, B. S. A.
27	Lexington, Ky	*State University of Kentucky*	Henry S. Barker, LL. D.
28	Baton Rouge, La	*Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.*	Thomas D. Boyd, LL. D.
29	Orono, Me	*University of Maine*	Robert J. Aley, LL. D.
30	College Park, Md	*Maryland Agricultural College*	
31	Amherst, Mass	*Massachusetts Agricultural College*	K. L. Butterfield, LL. D.
32	Boston, Mass	*Massachusetts Institute of Technology*	Richard C. Maclaurin, LL. D.
33	Ann Arbor, Mich	University of Michigan	Harry B. Hutchins, LL. D.
34	East Lansing, Mich	*Michigan Agricultural College*	J. L. Snyder, LL. D.
35	Houghton, Mich	Michigan College of Mines	F. W. McNair, Sc. D.
36	Minneapolis, Minn	*University of Minnesota*	George E. Vincent, LL. D.
37	Agricultural College, Miss.	*Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.*	G. R. Hightower.
38	Columbus, Miss	Mississippi Industrial Institute and College.	Henry L. Whitfield.
39	University, Miss	University of Mississippi	A. A. Kincannon, LL. D., chancellor.
40	Columbia, Mo	*University of Missouri*	Albert Ross Hill, LL. D.
41	Bozeman, Mont	*Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.*	James M. Hamilton, M. S.
42	Butte, Mont	Montana State School of Mines	Charles H. Bowman, M. S.
43	Missoula, Mont	University of Montana	Edwin B. Craighead, LL. D.

[1] Corrected to Dec. 16, 1912, in so far as changes have been reported to this bureau.

Directory of State universities and other State-aided institutions of higher education—Con.

	Location.	Name.	President.
44	Lincoln, Nebr	*University of Nebraska*	Samuel Avery, LL. D., chancellor.
45	Reno, Nev	*University of Nevada*	J. E. Stubbs, LL. D.
46	Durham, N. H	*New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.*	Edward F. Fairchild, LL. D.
47	New Brunswick, N. J	*Rutgers College*	Wm. H. S. Demarest, LL. D.
48	Albuquerque, N. Mex	University of New Mexico	David R. Boyd, Ph. D.
49	Socorro, N. Mex	New Mexico School of Mines	Emmet A. Drake, M. A.
50	State College, N. Mex	*New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.*	W. E. Garrison, Ph. D.
51	Ithaca, N. Y	*Cornell University*	J. G. Schurman, LL. D.
52	Chapel Hill, N. C	University of North Carolina	F. P. Venable, LL. D.
53	West Raleigh, N. C	*North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.*	Daniel H. Hill, Litt. D.
54	Agricultural College, N. Dak.	*North Dakota Agricultural College*	J. H. Worst, LL. D.
55	University, N. Dak	University of North Dakota	Frank L. McVey, Ph. D.
56	Athens, Ohio	Ohio University	Alston Ellis, LL. D.
57	Columbus, Ohio	*Ohio State University*	W. O. Thompson, LL. D.
58	Oxford, Ohio	Miami University	R. W. Hughes, acting.
59	Norman, Okla	University of Oklahoma	Stratton D. Brooks, Ph. D.
60	Stillwater, Okla	*Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.*	J. H. Connell, M. S.
61	Wilburton, Okla	Oklahoma State School of Mines and Metallurgy.	George E. Ladd.
62	Corvallis, Oreg	*Oregon State Agricultural College*	W. J. Kerr, Sc. D.
63	Eugene, Oreg	University of Oregon	Prince L. Campbell, A. B.
64	State College, Pa	*Pennsylvania State College*	Edwin E. Sparks, LL. D.
65	San Juan, P. R	*University of Porto Rico*	Edward M. Bainter.
66	Kingston, R. I	*Rhode Island State College*	Howard Edwards, LL. D.
67	Charleston, S. C	South Carolina Military Academy	O. J. Bond, A. M., supt.
68	Clemson, S. C	*Clemson Agricultural College*	Walter M. Riggs, E. M. E.
69	Columbia, S. C	University of South Carolina	S. C. Mitchell, LL. D.
70	Brookings, S. Dak	*South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.*	Robert L. Slagle, Ph. D.
71	Rapid City, S. Dak	South Dakota State School of Mines	Charles H. Fulton, E. M.
72	Vermilion, S. Dak	University of South Dakota	Franklin B. Gault, Ph. D.
73	Knoxville, Tenn	*University of Tennessee*	Brown Ayres, LL. D.
74	Austin, Tex	University of Texas	Sidney E. Mezes, Ph. D.
75	College Station, Tex	*Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.*	Robert T. Milner.
76	Logan, Utah	*Agricultural College of Utah*	John A. Widtsoe, Ph. D.
77	Salt Lake City, Utah	University of Utah	Joseph T. Kingsbury, Sc. D.
78	Burlington, Vt	*University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.*	Guy P. Benton, LL. D.
79	Blacksburg, Va	*Virginia Polytechnic Institute*	P. B. Barringer, LL. D.
80	Charlottesville, Va	University of Virginia	E. A. Alderman, LL. D.
81	Lexington, Va	Virginia Military Institute	Edward W. Nichols, supt.
82	Williamsburg, Va	College of William and Mary	L. G. Tyler, LL. D.
83	Pullman, Wash	*State College of Washington*	E. A. Bryan, LL. D.
84	Seattle, Wash	University of Washington	Thomas F. Kane, Ph. D.
85	Morgantown, W. Va	*West Virginia University*	Thomas E. Hodges, Ph. D.
86	Madison, Wis	*University of Wisconsin*	Charles R. Van Hise, LL. D.
87	Laramie, Wyo	*University of Wyoming*	C. A. Duniway, Ph. D.

Agricultural and mechanical colleges for colored students.

1	Normal, Ala	*Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.*	Walter S. Buchanan.
2	Pine Bluff, Ark	*Branch Normal College*	W. S. Harris.
3	Dover, Del	*State College for Colored Students*	W. C. Jason, A. M.
4	Tallahassee, Fla	*Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.*	N. B. Young, A. M.
5	Savannah, Ga	*Georgia State Industrial College*	R. R. Wright, LL. D.
6	Frankfort, Ky	*Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons.*	G. P. Russell.
7	New Orleans, La	*Southern University*	H. A. Hill.
8	Princess Anne, Md	*Princess Anne Academy*	J. O. Spencer, Ph. D.
9	Alcorn, Miss	*Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.*	J. A. Martin, A. M.
10	Jefferson City, Mo	*Lincoln Institute*	B. F. Allen, Ph. D.
11	Greensboro, N. C	*Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race.*	James B. Dudly, LL. D.
12	Langston, Okla	*Colored Agricultural and Normal University.*	Inman E. Page, A. M.
13	Orangeburg, S. C	*Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural, and Mechanical College.*	Robert S. Wilkinson, Ph. D.
14	Prairie View, Tex	*Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College.*	E. L. Blackshear.
15	Hampton, Va	*Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.*	H. B. Frissell, D. D.
16	Institute, W. Va	*West Virginia Colored Institute*	Byrd Prillerman, A. M.

TABLE 1.—*The teaching force in State universities and*

	Names of institutions.	Professors and instructors.						President's salary.	Maximum and minimum salaries.	
		Preparatory department.	Collegiate department.	Professional departments.	Total (excluding duplicates.)				Deans.	
					Men.	Women.	Total.		Maximum.	Minimum.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Alabama Polytechnic Institute	0	67	9	67	0	67	$4,200	$2,400	......
2	University of Alabama	0	36	28	64	0	64	6,500	3,000	$2,400
3	University of Arizona	13	30	0	24	10	34	4,000	......	......
4	University of Arkansas	0	86	78	117	14	131	4,000	3,000	1,200
5	University of California	0	255	151	424	13	437	15,000	5,000	2,200
6	University of Colorado	0	101	90	164	28	192	5,000	3,000	......
7	Colorado State Agricultural College	....	58	0	45	13	58	5,000	2,500	......
8	Colorado School of Mines	0	23	0	23	0	23	5,500	......	......
9	State Teachers College of Colorado	23	44	0	32	17	49	5,625	2,500	2,000
10	Connecticut Agricultural College	7	23	0	20	5	25	4,000	3,000	......
11	Delaware College	0	25	0	25	0	25	3,000	......	......
12	University of Florida	4	27	3	31	0	31	3,300	3,000	1,900
13	Florida State College for Women	....	26	0	10	16	26	3,000	1,850	......
14	University of Georgia	0	58	7	65	0	65	5,000	......	......
15	Georgia School of Technology	5	61	0	59	2	61	6,000	2,500	......
16	North Georgia Agricultural College	2	12	0	12	2	14	2,500	......	......
17	College of Hawaii	0	19	0	14	5	19	4,800	......	......
18	University of Idaho	5	57	5	55	9	64	4,500	3,500	2,500
19	University of Illinois	0	356	182	496	47	543	12,000	6,000	1,750
20	Indiana University	0	74	176	238	12	250	6,000	4,500	1,400
21	Purdue University (Ind.)	0	159	4	155	8	163	6,000	4,000	2,500
22	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	167	7	134	40	174	5,000	4,000	......
23	Iowa State Teachers College	....	107	0	44	63	107	5,000	......	......
24	State University of Iowa	0	84	144	152	13	165	6,000	5,000	2,100
25	University of Kansas	0	128	83	175	23	198	6,000	3,500	3,000
26	Kansas State Agricultural College	7	124	7	102	36	138	6,000	3,000	2,100
27	State University of Kentucky	4	77	7	81	7	88	5,500	3,000	2,000
28	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.	4	59	4	60	7	67	5,000	3,600	2,100
29	University of Maine	0	80	12	86	5	91	5,000	2,800	2.400
30	Maryland Agricultural College	7	25	0	25	0	25	3,600	2,500	1,800
31	Massachusetts Agricultural College	0	56	0	55	1	56	5,000	3,600	2,000
32	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	0	220	0	220	0	220	......	......	......
33	University of Michigan	0	301	113	338	3	341	8,500	5,000	1,800
34	Michigan Agricultural College	....	130	0	110	20	130	5,000	3,000	1,700
35	Michigan College of Mines	0	30	0	30	0	30	......	......	......
36	University of Minnesota	102	183	214	438	61	499	10,000	6,000	2,500
37	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	3	60	0	63	0	63	3,500	2,500	......
38	Mississippi Industrial Institute and College	9	63	0	3	69	72	3,500	1,400	......
39	University of Mississippi	0	26	11	35	1	36	3,500	2,500	......
40	University of Missouri	0	184	24	225	13	238	7,500	4,200	3,300
41	Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	15	31	2	28	11	39	4,000	......	......
42	Montana State School of Mines	0	8	0	8	0	8	4,000	......	......
43	University of Montana	0	25	3	33	5	38	4,500	2,500	2,000
44	University of Nebraska	0	126	91	201	54	255	6,000	3,000	2,700
45	University of Nevada	16	39	0	34	12	46	5,000	......	......
46	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	46	0	42	4	46	4,400	2,500	......
47	Rutgers College (N. J.)	14	52	0	59	7	66	6,000	3,000	......
48	University of New Mexico	22	22	0	13	9	22	2,400	1,800	1,800
49	New Mexico School of Mines	1	7	0	8	0	8	3,000	......	......
50	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	3	40	0	36	7	43	4,500	3,000	1,800
51	Cornell University (N. Y.)	0	489	184	667	29	696	10,000	6,000	3,500
52	University of North Carolina	0	67	14	81	0	81	4,000	3,000	2,500
53	North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	54	0	53	1	54	3,500	2,550	......

other State-aided institutions of higher education.

Maximum and minimum salaries—Continued.												House in addition to salary.		
Professors.		Associate professors.		Assistant professors.		Adjunct professors.		Instructors.		Tutors and others.				
Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	President.	Professors.	
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	
$2,400	$2,000	$1,800	$1,600	$1,500	$1,500	......	......	$1,400	$900	$900	$250	No.	0	1
2,400	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,000	1,000	$1,600	$1,200	750	450	200	100	Yes.	0	2
2,400	2,000	......	......	1,600	1,500	......	......	1,400	1,000	......	......	Yes.	0	3
2,500	2,000	1,800	1,200	......	......	1,200	1,000	1,200	800	......	......	No.	0	4
5,000	2,200	3,000	2,000	2,200	1,500	......	......	1,500	1,000	1,200	100	Yes.	1	5
2,800	1,800	......	......	1,800	1,400	......	......	1,200	800	600	100	Yes.	0	6
2,000	1,900	1,800	1,500	1,400	1,300	......	......	1,200	1,000	900	......	......	......	7
3,000	1,500	2,300	1,800	1,700	1,300	......	......	1,000	300	540	540	Yes.	0	8
2,000	1,500	1,700	800	1,300	800	......	......	......	......	......	......	No.	0	9
2,500	2,000	1,700	1,000	......	......	......	......	1,800	800	800	150	No.	0	10
2,250	1,800	......	......	1,500	1,500	......	......	1,200	1,000	......	......	No.	0	11
1,800	1,600	1,500	1,200	......	......	......	......	1,000	400	200	100	No.	0	12
1,800	1,600	......	......	1,300	1,000	......	......	1,000	700	......	......	No.	0	13
3,200	2,000	1,800	1,800	......	......	1,500	1,500	1,200	900	600	100	Yes.	0	14
3,000	2,000	1,650	1,500	1,500	1,200	......	......	1,200	800	......	......	Yes.	3	15
1,500	1,200	......	......	......	......	1,000	......	600	......	......	......	No.	0	16
2,750	2,400	......	......	1,800	......	......	......	1,500	900	......	......	......	......	17
2,400	2,000	2,000	1,600	1,500	1,400	......	......	......	......	......	......	No.	0	18
5,000	2,000	2,900	2,100	3,000	1,320	......	......	2,000	700	1,800	500	Yes.	0	19
3,200	2,000	1,800	1,600	1,500	1,000	......	......	1,150	700	1,000	50	......	......	20
3,000	1,800	1,800	1,500	1,500	1,200	......	......	1,200	900	900	500	No.	1	21
2,750	2,000	2,400	1,800	2,000	1,100	......	......	1,200	700	540	......	Yes.	12	22
2,400	1,300	2,000	1,400	1,400	1,000	......	......	1,200	450	325	25	Yes.	0	23
4,600	1,900	......	......	2,500	1,200	......	......	2,000	900	1,000	500	Yes.	0	24
2,500	2,000	2,000	1,700	1,500	1,200	......	......	1,000	600	500	......	Yes.	0	25
2,750	2,000	2,050	......	1,900	1,200	......	......	1,600	900	1,000	600	No.	0	26
2,000	1,500	1,800	1,400	1,400	1,000	......	......	1,000	600	500	100	No.	0	27
3,000	1,500	1,900	1,900	1,700	1,200	......	......	1,200	700	540	300	Yes.	0	28
2,000	1,500	1,800	1,500	1,400	1,200	......	......	1,100	600	500	......	Yes.	0	29
1,800	1,500	1,500	1,200	1,200	1,000	1,000	800	......	......	......	......	Yes.	0	30
3,000	2,500	2,150	1,800	2,000	1,700	......	......	1,500	1,000	840	300	Yes.	0	31
......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	32
4,000	2,000	2,200	2,000	1,800	1,600	......	......	1,400	900	800	......	Yes.	0	33
3,000	1,400	1,700	......	1,800	1,300	......	......	1,500	600	......	......	Yes.	10	34
......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	35
4,000	1,500	3,000	2,200	2,250	1,200	......	......	1,300	600	......	......	No.	4	36
2,000	......	1,500	......	1,200	......	......	......	1,000	600	450	90	Yes.	29	37
1,800	1,350	......	......	......	......	......	......	1,200	800	......	......	No.	0	38
2,000	......	1,500	......	1,200	......	......	......	600	......	......	......	Yes.	3	39
3,300	2,200	......	......	2,000	1,500	......	......	1,400	900	900	150	Yes.	2	40
2,400	1,500	......	......	1,800	1,200	......	......	1,350	900	1,080	450	No.	0	41
3,000	2,000	......	......	2,000	......	......	......	1,800	......	960	......	No.	1	42
2,500	2,000	......	......	1,900	1,400	......	......	1,600	1,200	......	......	No.	0	43
2,500	1,500	1,700	1,300	1,500	1,200	1,400	1,000	1,400	500	1,200	100	No.	0	44
2,400	2,000	2,400	2,100	2,400	1,400	......	......	1,800	450	1,500	300	No.	0	45
2,500	1,600	2,000	1,000	1,500	1,200	......	......	2,000	600	1,200	150	Yes.	0	46
3,600	2,000	2,000	1,600	1,500	1,400	......	......	1,600	1,000	840	600	Yes.	0	47
1,800	1,800	1,400	1,200	1,200	1,000	......	......	1,000	1,000	300	100	No.	0	48
1,700	1,500	......	......	......	......	......	......	1,200	1,000	......	......	No.	0	49
2,100	1,500	1,600	1,600	1,400	1,000	......	......	1,000	900	......	......	No.	0	50
6,000	2,500	......	......	2,000	1,500	......	......	1,200	800	1,000	50	Yes.	2	51
2,500	2,000	1,750	1,750	......	......	......	......	1,000	500	410	110	Yes.	0	52
2,500	2,000	1,800	1,600	1,500	1,200	......	......	1,800	700	......	......	No.	0	53

TABLE 1.—*The teaching force in State universities and*

	Names of institutions.	Professors and instructors.						President's salary.	Maximum and minimum salaries.	
		Preparatory department.	Collegiate department.	Professional departments.	Total (excluding duplicates).				Deans.	
					Men.	Women.	Total.		Maximum.	Minimum.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
54	North Dakota Agricultural College	39	50	6	51	10	61	$5,400	$3,500	$2,200
55	University of North Dakota	0	65	29	65	12	77	6,000	3,000	2,500
56	Ohio University	....	40	0	28	12	40	5,000	3,000	3,000
57	Ohio State University	0	251	22	236	37	273	7,000	5,000	2,000
58	Miami University (Ohio)	0	32	0	30	2	32	6,000	3,000	1,500
59	University of Oklahoma	0	54	57	80	9	89	7,500	4,000	1,800
60	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	5	64	0	58	11	69	4,500	2,200	....
61	Oklahoma State School of Mines and Metallurgy.[1]	....	......	......	......	....	......	....	....	....
62	Oregon State Agricultural College	....	105	3	88	20	108	5,000	2,500	2,200
63	University of Oregon	0	53	45	87	11	98	4,500	2,500	2,000
64	Pennsylvania State College	0	199	0	187	12	199	8,000	5,000	1,300
65	University of Porto Rico	11	34	0	18	27	45	....	4,000	2,500
66	Rhode Island State College	0	31	0	26	5	31	4,000	....	....
67	South Carolina Military Academy	0	13	0	13	0	13	3,000	....	....
68	Clemson Agricultural College (S. C.)	2	53	0	55	0	55	4,500	3,000	2,500
69	University of South Carolina	0	33	3	33	3	36	3,500	2,500	2,000
70	South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	7	48	2	46	14	60	3,500	1,900	....
71	South Dakota State School of Mines	2	8	0	10	0	10	2,800	....	....
72	University of South Dakota	....	50	6	44	12	56	4,200	2,500	2,000
73	University of Tennessee	....	66	97	125	13	138	5,000	2,300	1,300
74	University of Texas	0	107	58	165	15	180	5,000	4,000	3,000
75	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	....	86	0	86	0	86	4,000	2,700	2,300
76	Agricultural College of Utah	32	39	0	55	16	71	5,000	3,000	1,800
77	University of Utah	0	62	9	57	5	62	....	....	....
78	University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.	0	55	48	96	4	100	7,000	3,000	1,500
79	Virginia Polytechnic Institute	....	62	0	62	0	62	5,000	....	....
80	University of Virginia	0	40	28	67	0	67	8,000	....	....
81	Virginia Military Institute	0	20	0	20	0	20	4,000	....	....
82	College of William and Mary (Va.)	7	12	0	19	0	19	2,760	2,000	....
83	State College of Washington	32	92	9	86	15	101	5,000	3,000	1,600
84	University of Washington	0	95	11	115	11	126	6,000	2,800	2,400
85	West Virginia University	3	68	3	71	3	74	4,200	3,750	2,700
86	University of Wisconsin	0	449	37	526	55	581	7,000	5,000	4,000
87	University of Wyoming	9	32	0	27	24	51	5,000	....	....

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[1] No report.

other State-aided institutions of higher education—Continued.

Maximum and minimum salaries—Continued.												House in addition to salary.		
Professors.		Associate professors.		Assistant professors.		Adjunct professors.		Instructors.		Tutors and others.				
Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	President.	Professors.	
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	
$2,500	$1,500	$1,800	....	$2,000	$1,300	....	....	$1,500	$700	$400	$125	No.	0	54
2,700	2,100	....	....	2,000	1,400	....	....	1,700	900	....	....	Yes.	0	55
2,500	2,000	....	....	1,500	1,200	....	....	1,100	900	1,000	750	No.	0	56
3,000	1,800	1,900	$1,200	1,800	1,200	....	....	1,500	800	300	150	Yes.	0	57
2,500	2,000	1,800	1,500	1,500	1,200	....	....	1,200	850	800	300	Yes.	0	58
2,250	1,500	1,500	1,200	1,600	1,200	....	....	1,200	360	300	50	No.	0	59
2,100	1,600	1,600	1,400	1,400	1,200	....	....	1,200	720	....	....	No.	0	60
....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	61
2,400	1,500	2,000	1,500	1,800	1,400	....	....	1,400	600	600	....	No.	0	62
2,000	1,600	....	....	1,600	1,200	....	....	1,200	900	900	200	Yes.	0	63
3,000	1,600	2,000	1,500	2,000	1,000	....	....	1,200	750	1,000	650	Yes.	11	64
2,550	1,200	....	....	1,200	1,000	....	....	2,000	750	....	....	No.	1	65
2,350	1,600	....	....	1,200	1,200	....	....	1,500	250	....	....	No.	0	66
1,800	1,500	....	....	1,000	900	....	....	....	....	....	....	Yes.	2	67
2,000	1,900	1,700	1,700	1,500	1,500	....	....	1,300	900	....	....	Yes.	5	68
2,000	2,000	1,500	1,500	....	....	$1,200	$1,000	800	800	400	300	Yes.	18	69
2,800	1,200	1,800	1,500	....	....	....	....	1,500	600	....	....	Yes.	0	70
1,850	1,350	....	....	1,400	1,300	....	....	1,200	900	....	....	Yes.	0	71
1,860	1,700	....	....	1,200	1,200	....	....	1,200	600	300	120	No.	0	72
2,200	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,500	1,200	....	....	1,200	600	600	100	Yes.	0	73
3,000	2,500	2,500	2,000	....	....	2,000	1,800	1,800	900	900	600	No.	0	74
2,700	2,000	2,000	1,600	1,600	1,300	....	....	1,300	1,000	800	300	Yes.	5	75
3,000	1,800	1,800	1,400	1,800	1,200	....	....	1,200	600	....	....	Yes.	4	76
2,500	1,800	2,100	1,750	1,700	1,300	....	....	1,250	500	....	....	No.	0	77
2,200	500	....	....	1,800	1,500	2,000	300	1,325	115	300	25	Yes.	0	78
2,000	1,400	1,400	800	....	....	....	....	1,200	800	600	125	Yes.	0	79
3,300	2,000	2,000	2,000	....	....	1,700	1,000	1,000	250	300	40	Yes.	10	80
2,000	....	2,000	....	1,000	600	1,500	....	....	....	....	....	Yes.	10	81
1,800	....	....	....	900	....	1,200	....	200	....	....	....	Yes.	0	82
3,000	1,800	1,600	....	1,600	1,200	....	....	1,200	900	100	100	No.	0	83
2,800	1,700	2,100	1,800	2,100	1,350	....	....	1,650	900	1,800	100	Yes.	0	84
2,400	2,200	1,800	1,200	1,800	1,200	....	....	1,560	900	....	....	Yes.	0	85
4,000	2,700	2,750	2,000	2,500	1,600	....	....	2,250	800	1,400	400	Yes.	4	86
2,200	2,000	1,800	1,500	1,500	....	....	....	1,400	800	....	....	No.	0	87

TABLE 2.—*Student enrollment in State universities and other State-aided institutions of higher education.*

	Names of institutions.	Regular term enrollment.											Enrolled in summer school.		Enrolled in other short courses.		In professional departments.					
		Preparatory department.		Collegiate department.		Graduate department.		Professional departments.		Total (excluding duplicates).												
		Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Law.	Medicine.	Dentistry.	Pharmacy.	Veterinary surgery.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
1	Alabama Polytechnic Institute	0	0	774	10	26	0	125	0	800	10	810	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	76	49	1
2	University of Alabama	0	0	260	52	1	1	228	1	488	54	542	75	168	0	0	80	140	0	9	0	2
3	University of Arizona	72	29	123	71	4	2	0	0	199	102	301	13	71	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
4	University of Arkansas	0	0	554	150	7	1	212	1	843	207	1050	116	96	......	......	71	142	0	......	......	4
5	University of California	0	0	2,539	1,573	311	267	307	7	3,088	1,718	4,806	562	1,419	134	29	119	37	78	80	0	5
6	University of Colorado	0	0	579	434	45	40	234	10	835	472	1,307	102	146	0	0	126	118	0	0	0	6
7	Colorado State Agricultural College	235	96	216	106	1	0	36	0	452	202	654	0	0	80	55	0	0	0	0	36	7
8	Colorado School of Mines	0	0	248	0	19	0	0	0	267	0	267	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
9	State Teachers College of Colorado	......	......	41	497	14	95	0	0	55	592	647	37	575	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
10	Connecticut Agricultural College	16	2	135	11	0	0	0	0	210	19	229	13	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
11	Delaware College	0	0	168	0	0	0	0	0	168	0	168	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
12	University of Florida	36	0	189	0	6	0	53	0	284	0	284	34	68	18	0	53	0	0	0	0	12
13	Florida State College for Women	0	146	0	170	0	1	0	0	0	316	316	10	46	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13
14	University of Georgia	0	0	536	0	26	0	92	0	654	0	654	90	280	61	0	75	0	0	17	......	14
15	Georgia School of Technology	83	0	606	0	0	0	0	0	689	0	689	105	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15
16	North Georgia Agricultural College	95	12	92	11	0	0	0	0	187	23	210	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16
17	College of Hawaii	0	0	30	127	0	1	0	0	30	128	158	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17
18	University of Idaho	29	32	262	164	5	3	34	0	351	199	550	26	176	22	0	34	0	0	0	0	18
19	University of Illinois	0	0	2,792	700	270	59	934	48	3,997	846	4,843	351	286	673	184	122	537	125	198	0	19
20	Indiana University	0	0	856	645	114	48	229	10	1,199	703	1,902	617	456	0	0	83	156	0	0	0	20
21	Purdue University (Ind.)	0	0	1,504	150	104	4	47	1	1,655	162	1,817	40	47	160	22	0	0	0	48	0	21
22	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	0	1,415	277	14	0	85	0	1,514	277	1,791	26	70	567	51	0	0	0	0	85	22

23	Iowa State Teachers College	189	311	302	1,558	0	0	0	0	491	1,869	2,360	132	1,090	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	23
24	State University of Iowa	0	0	673	499	112	54	522	85	1,322	744	2,066	140	166	0	0	210	126	152	44	0	24
25	University of Kansas	0	0	995	553	86	36	411	30	1,300	870	2,170	206	223	0	0	268	95	0	78	0	25
26	Kansas State Agricultural College	414	166	825	556	24	20	51	0	1,255	720	1,975	35	69	294	160	0	0	0	0	51	26
27	State University of Kentucky	144	37	567	181	75	10	80	1	866	229	1,095	116	24	32	0	81	0	0	0	0	27
28	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.	85	1	496	80	22	2	53	0	642	82	724	242	255	114	4	53	0	0	0	0	28
29	University of Maine	0	0	471	60	11	1	123	2	659	63	722	96	30	101	5	108	0	0	17	0	29
30	Maryland Agricultural College	75	0	169	0	8	0	0	0	252	0	252	0	0	61	104	0	0	0	0	0	30
31	Massachusetts Agricultural College	0	0	474	3	17	0	0	0	491	3	494	45	78	120	11	0	0	0	0	0	31
32	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	0	0	1,511	7	43	0	0	0	1,554	7	1,561	279	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	32
33	University of Michigan	0	0	2,712	733	172	44	1,417	33	4,120	810	4,930	943	251	0	0	793	343	232	82	0	33
34	Michigan Agricultural College	153	39	902	219	6	3	0	0	1,055	264	1,319	0	0	393	0	0	0	0	0	0	34
35	Michigan College of Mines	0	0	186	0	0	0	0	0	186	0	186	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35
36	University of Minnesota	787	343	1,441	1,304	101	58	814	41	3,143	1,746	4,889	233	247	701	143	325	208	247	75	0	36
37	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	323	1	884	5	6	0	0	0	1,213	6	1,219	25	225	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	37
38	Mississippi Industrial Institute and College	0	409	0	418	0	0	0	0	0	827	827	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	38
39	University of Mississippi	0	0	254	36	18	5	133	3	389	44	433	83	338	0	0	64	41	0	31	0	39
40	University of Missouri	0	0	1,616	750	110	39	182	11	1,790	654	2,444	258	233	289	16	146	47	0	0	0	40
41	Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	123	28	118	66	7	3	13	1	261	98	359	0	0	136	53	0	0	0	14	0	41
42	Montana State School of Mines	0	0	55	0	0	0	0	0	55	0	55	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42
43	University of Montana	0	0	110	81	6	6	17	0	116	87	203	0	0	27	0	17	0	0	0	0	43
44	University of Nebraska	0	0	1,264	1,175	142	122	419	14	2,077	1,184	3,261	137	256	0	0	236	162	0	35	0	44
45	University of Nevada	43	45	129	146	0	4	0	0	172	195	367	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	45
46	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	0	208	21	1	1	0	0	285	22	307	0	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	46
47	Rutgers College (N. J.)	132	30	378	0	4	0	0	0	514	30	544	0	0	113	15	0	0	0	0	0	47
48	University of New Mexico	11	20	55	46	3	2	0	0	69	68	137	8	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	48
49	New Mexico School of Mines	5	5	26	5	0	0	0	0	31	10	41	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	49
50	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	138	48	58	33	0	1	0	0	196	82	278	0	0	54	40	0	0	0	0	0	50
51	Cornell University (N. Y.)	0	0	3,328	367	313	70	530	22	4,149	447	4,596	699	458	388	55	328	118	0	0	106	51
52	University of North Carolina	0	0	565	2	25	1	213	0	794	2	796	71	154	0	0	126	54	0	33	0	52
53	North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	0	0	540	0	0	0	0	0	540	0	540	12	20	47	0	0	0	0	0	0	53
54	North Dakota Agricultural College	308	120	110	79	5	1	26	0	449	200	649	124	0	440	30	0	0	0	25	1	54
55	University of North Dakota	0	0	201	202	8	6	116	4	419	275	694	46	262	0	0	89	31	0	0	0	55
56	Ohio University	110	103	328	372	16	6	0	0	454	481	935	302	581	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	56
57	Ohio State University	0	0	2,020	649	67	30	422	11	2,509	690	3,199	509	255	267	6	185	0	0	96	152	57
58	Miami University (Ohio)	0	0	205	125	2	1	0	0	207	126	333	138	407	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	58
59	University of Oklahoma	0	0	247	119	15	5	218	8	490	236	726	67	76	0	0	115	53	0	58	0	59
60	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	162	84	461	203	4	0	0	0	627	287	914	95	257	461	274	0	0	0	0	0	60

TABLE 2.—*Student enrollment in State universities and other State-aided institutions of higher education*—Continued.

	Names of institutions.	Regular term enrollment.											Enrolled in summer school.		Enrolled in other short courses.		In professional departments.					
		Preparatory department.		Collegiate department.		Graduate department.		Professional departments.		Total (excluding duplicates).												
		Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Law.	Medicine.	Dentistry.	Pharmacy.	Veterinary surgery.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
61	Oklahoma State School of Mines and Metallurgy.[1]	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	61
62	Oregon State Agricultural College	139	59	606	320	15	3	0	0	760	382	1,142	38	105	1,055	528	0	0	0	55	0	62
63	University of Oregon	0	0	360	296	11	9	231	13	582	318	900	53	93	0	0	177	67	0	0	0	63
64	Pennsylvania State College	0	0	1,447	36	36	1	0	0	1,643	49	1,692	55	160	130	6	0	0	0	0	0	64
65	University of Porto Rico	186	243	76	134	0	0	0	0	262	377	639	210	334	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	65
66	Rhode Island State College	0	0	160	22	3	0	0	0	172	28	200	4	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66
67	South Carolina Military Academy	0	0	236	0	0	0	0	0	236	0	236	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	67
68	Clemson Agricultural College (S. C.)	88	0	716	0	0	0	0	0	804	0	804	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	68
69	University of South Carolina	0	0	345	9	18	7	74	0	427	16	443	0	0	0	0	74	0	0	0	0	69
70	South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	46	37	125	59	6	2	0	0	297	138	435	19	126	112	11	0	0	0	0	0	70
71	South Dakota State School of Mines	21	1	37	0	1	0	0	0	59	1	60	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	71
72	University of South Dakota	16	7	98	125	14	9	106	2	261	157	418	0	0	0	0	90	18	0	0	0	72
73	University of Tennessee	45	89	389	121	0	1	242	5	644	216	860	64	59	538	17	32	155	40	20	0	73
74	University of Texas	0	0	876	614	49	15	465	51	1,390	680	2,070	350	384	0	0	284	162	0	38	0	74
75	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	85	0	1,032	0	12	0	0	0	1,129	0	1,129	108	22	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	75
76	Agricultural College of Utah	307	112	226	102	10	2	0	0	542	216	758	55	95	394	67	0	0	0	0	0	76
77	University of Utah	0	0	381	472	24	13	79	1	484	486	970	367	723	0	0	29	51	0	0	0	77
78	University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.	0	0	299	84	1	2	180	0	480	86	566	21	34	0	0	.....	180	0	0	0	78
79	Virginia Polytechnic Institute	32	0	410	0	21	0	0	0	463	0	463	0	0	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	79
80	University of Virginia	0	0	421	0	39	0	295	0	733	0	733	228	918	0	0	211	84	0	0	0	80
81	Virginia Military Institute	0	0	368	0	4	0	0	0	372	0	372	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	81
82	College of William and Mary (Va.)	77	0	107	0	0	0	0	0	184	0	184	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	82
83	State College of Washington	172	84	450	223	15	8	43	1	637	315	952	135	177	100	32	0	0	0	22	22	83

84	University of Washington	0	0	932	976	36	44	269	27	1,237	1,047	2,284	120	253	57	0	214	0	0	82	0	84
85	West Virginia University	48	14	416	106	14	2	63	0	541	112	653	139	297	40	35	63	0	0	0	0	85
86	University of Wisconsin	0	0	2,533	966	272	104	247	8	2,984	1,165	4,149	1,031	532	556	1	158	60	0	38	.....	86
87	University of Wyoming	29	23	69	87	0	0	0	0	105	152	257	3	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	87

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[1] No report.

TABLE 3.—*Property and income in State universities*

	Names of institutions.	Property.						
		Bound volumes in libraries.	Approximate value of libraries.	Value of scientific apparatus, machinery, and furniture.	Value of live stock.	Value of grounds (including farm).	Value of buildings.	Endowment funds.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Alabama Polytechnic Institute..	25,000	$77,000	$77,743	$5,076	$9,000	$355,000	$284,500
2	University of Alabama..........	30,600	60,000	175,000	800	250,000	800,000	1,000,000
3	University of Arizona............	18,000	35,000	70,630	3,300	33,000	210,000	10,500
4	University of Arkansas..........	20,000	40,000	150,000	6,000	25,000	350,000	130,000
5	University of California..........	247,400	750,000	....	....	....	9,021,673	4,353,574
6	University of Colorado...........	61,030	80,000	155,000	300	180,000	825,000	....
7	Colorado State Agricultural College.	40,000	39,102	132,500	10,138	225,000	355,900	164,594
8	Colorado School of Mines........	10,000	25,126	236,437	....	69,063	441,147	....
9	State Teachers College of Colorado.	40,000	50,000	45,000	....	200,000	450,000	....
10	Connecticut Agricultural College.	12,000	20,000	93,000	18,000	50,000	330,000	196,000
11	Delaware College................	18,900	25,000	90,000	10,000	45,000	150,000	83,000
12	University of Florida............	13,000	15,000	75,000	5,000	160,000	271,000	219,650
13	Florida State College for Women.	9,000	15,000	16,000	....	25,000	185,000	....
14	University of Georgia............	38,100	56,500	100,000	10,265	550,000	560,000	370,202
15	Georgia School of Technology....	10,000	25,000	150,000	....	150,000	420,000	....
16	North Georgia Agricultural College.	4,000	2,500	....	....	20,000	60,000	....
17	College of Hawaii................	9,260	20,250	31,632	5,603	100,000	69,000	....
18	University of Idaho..............	27,707	35,200	119,108	13,235	57,775	433,650	680,275
19	University of Illinois............	212,700	426,000	251,910	11,470	465,000	2,093,500	647,401
20	Indiana University..............	82,000	100,000	100,000	....	72,000	552,000	744,000
21	Purdue University (Ind.)........	30,867	55,000	295,000	20,000	120,000	1,083,500	340,000
22	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	122,700	124,600	487,689	52,460	177,194	1,884,341	686,778
23	Iowa State Teachers College.....	38,500	50,000	225,000	....	10,000	950,000	....
24	State University of Iowa.........	75,000	153,753	658,043	....	358,522	1,687,603	373,769
25	University of Kansas............	80,000	180,000	175,000	....	100,000	1,500,000	151,000
26	Kansas State Agricultural College	40,916	67,532	255,376	49,037	259,500	748,829	502,365
27	State University of Kentucky...	10,000	10,000	50,000	5,500	275,000	600,000	184,075
28	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.	35,000	45,600	119,658	400	153,293	529,220	318,313
29	University of Maine.............	47,700	61,158	108,898	7,158	11,000	523,465	218,300
30	Maryland Agricultural College...	6,000	8,500	70,000	12,000	30,000	340,000	115,946
31	Massachusetts Agricultural College.	37,369	60,000	47,919	18,475	69,729	519,070	361,000
32	Massachusetts Institute of Technology.	92,148	195,378	489,912	....	546,683	910,507	1,899,390
33	University of Michigan..........	305,684	336,975	1,341,325	....	404,015	2,406,950	900,524
34	Michigan Agricultural College...	36,079	73,000	375,000	27,630	83,000	863,625	989,990
35	Michigan College of Mines.......	25,361	77,000	245,772	....	....	438,985	....
36	University of Minnesota.........	160,000	500,000	754,207	45,313	1,849,001	4,298,000	1,506,136
37	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	28,300	39,276	360,177	58,506	80,000	695,632	100,237
38	Mississippi Industrial Institute and College.	8,600	17,500	72,000	300	100,000	351,600	....
39	University of Mississippi........	30,000	35,000	50,000	500	75,000	450,000	700,000
40	University of Missouri..........	124,310	226,000	473,835	27,741	528,556	1,356,575	1,264,839
41	Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	11,708	21,500	105,000	13,750	74,000	290,000	327,970
42	Montana State School of Mines..	8,000	5,000	75,000	....	10,000	194,000	....
43	University of Montana..........	22,000	60,000	65,000	200	60,000	200,000	1,000,000
44	University of Nebraska..........	99,650	183,987	207,050	29,000	550,000	1,080,000	745,000
45	University of Nevada............	22,680	34,020	110,000	10,000	83,891	462,636	305,954
46	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	30,000	33,000	80,000	9,000	40,000	360,000	950,000
47	Rutgers College (N. J.)..........	66,991	67,500	158,500	....	197,100	681,500	842,727
48	University of New Mexico.......	9,000	16,050	21,000	....	10,000	78,050	....

[1] Includes appropriations for experiment stations and farmers' institutes and extension work.
[2] Does not include $7,500 from the city.
[3] The first income from this source will be available July 1, 1913.
[4] For buildings and permanent improvements.

and other State-aided institutions of higher education.

Income from—							Analysis of State appropriations.				
Student fees, excluding board and room rent.	Productive funds.	The State.[1]	United States Government.	Private benefactions.	All other sources.	Total working income.	Mill tax rate.	Receipts from mill tax.	Appropriation for current expenses.[1]	Appropriation for building and permanent improvements.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
$11,313	$21,490	$68,500	$57,362	...	$21,163	$179,828	...	...	$68,500	...	1
32,000	15,500	93,500	...	$40,000	17,721	198,721	...	...	81,000	$12,500	2
4,406	...	87,670	80,000	...	4,769	176,845	...	...	47,170	40,500	3
8,520	3,480	90,980	66,364	40,000	500	209,844	...	...	90,980	...	4
155,516	186,760	1,124,506	80,000	566,029	164,590	2,277,402	...	...	253,870	870,637	5
49,000	0	235,000	0	0	0	284,000	3/8	$160,000	30,000	45,000	6
...	13,679	130,173	80,000	0	38,873	262,725	1/8	85,843	44,330	...	7
34,198	0	92,710	0	0	9,822	136,730	1/8	80,210	...	12,500	8
25,000	0	162,500	0	...	0	187,500	1/8	80,000	35,000	47,500	9
6,239	14,010	64,375	65,000	0	47,968	197,592	...	...	31,375	33,000	10
9,042	4,980	22,000	70,000	...	3,250	109,272	...	...	12,000	10,000	11
2,896	9,665	84,885	55,000	1,500	1,809	155,755	...	...	29,885	55,000	12
9,000	1,975	71,250	...	...	...	82,225	...	...	40,000	31,250	13
15,477	25,314	118,025	33,333	61,826	10,467	264,442	...	...	118,025	...	14
42,020	...	110,000	...	2,682	...	[3] 119,702	...	...	75,000	35,000	15
1,400	...	21,500	...	...	2,000	24,900	...	...	21,500	...	16
190	...	85,000	50,000	...	1,967	137,157	...	...	10,000	75,000	17
825	61,462	103,000	80,000	...	715	246,002	...	...	52,000	51,000	18
241,114	32,464	1,918,900	79,938	...	91,295	2,363,711	[3] 1	...	1,465,650	453,250	19
56,000	43,200	255,000	...	...	500	354,700	1/10	180,000	75,000	...	20
63,094	17,000	301,195	80,000	...	115,871	577,160	1/10	179,504	121,691	...	21
78,783	35,019	670,218	80,000	2,363	75,091	941,474	1/8	[4] 182,200	488,018	...	22
23,828	...	231,750	...	...	4,921	260,499	1/10	[4] 50,000	181,750	...	23
60,525	11,167	661.825	...	7,095	66,290	806,902	1/8	[4] 175,000	428,825	58,000	24
37,736	10,586	504,637	...	...	200	553,159	...	...	434,883	69,754	25
...	24,482	452,250	80,000	...	115,823	672,555	...	...	373,250	79,000	26
3,708	8,644	215,000	72,750	40,000	...	340,102	1/20	49,923	165,077	...	27
14,109	14,555	124,500	57,686	...	40,566	251,416	...	...	124,500	...	28
38,740	9,915	115,000	80,000	...	39,641	283,296	...	...	115,000	(5)	29
0	5,797	36,000	[6] 80,000	0	0	121,797	...	...	36,000	...	30
5,220	10,613	292,512	63,333	0	43,925	415,603	...	...	212,512	80,000	31
348,894	5,307	29,000	16,667	101,437	19,898	521,203	...	...	29,000	...	32
345,724	56,003	785,738	0	12,137	155,592	1,355,194	3/8	730,657	9,000	46,081	33
23,399	70,265	202,210	80,000	...	76,544,	452,418	1/10	202,210	...	...	34
23,757	...	65,000	0	...	6,913	95,670	...	...	65,000	...	35
186,604	57,529	2,314,713	80,000	...	43,653	2,682,499	23/100	689,521	831,205	793,987	36
6,692	14,387	221,399	55,818	250	64,768	363,314	...	...	179,499	41,900	37
13,670	9,389	70,000	...	...	3,936	96,995	...	...	70,000	...	38
25,000	42,000	32,250	...	40,000	...	139,250	...	...	32,250	...	39
61,692	64,249	610,093	76,875	...	31,143	844,052	...	...	513,393	96,700	40
6,961	25,048	97,402	80,000	...	12,241	221,652	...	...	76,402	21,000	41
483	...	33,000	...	...	...	33,483	...	...	33,000	...	42
4,320	350	105,000	...	...	200	109,870	...	...	100,000	5,000	43
68,938	42,490	651,318	80,000	...	78,787	921,533	1	374,103	92,215	185,000	44
3,058	11,434	141,565	80,000	150,000	14,786	400,843	1/2	41,039,	60,526	40,000	45
7,515	40,061	20,955	80,000	...	39,759	188,290	...	...	14,028	6,927	46
23,259	41,583	65,612	80,000	40,050	59,643	310,147	...	...	50,476	15,136	47
1,171	7,514	39,590	...	...	103	48,378	65/100	39,590	39,590	...	48

[5] Included in current expenses.

[6] Part of this money is used for the benefit of affiliated school of agriculture and the mechanic arts for negroes.

TABLE 3.—*Property and income in State universities and*

	Names of institutions.	Property.						
		Bound volumes in libraries.	Approximate value of libraries.	Value of scientific apparatus, machinery, and furniture.	Value of live stock.	Value of grounds (including farm).	Value of buildings.	Endowment funds.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
49	New Mexico School of Mines	5,000	$9,000	$15,500	....	$2,000	$85,000	....
50	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	14,732	39,400	91,000	$6,187	107,900	106,000	....
51	Cornell University (N. Y.)	409,700	792,501	1,334,968	....	275,351	4,593,478	$9,523,405
52	University of North Carolina	70,000	100,000	110,000	....	70,000	690,000	136,000
53	North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	10,528	19,800	212,531	16,405	70,310	492,750	125,000
54	North Dakota Agricultural College.	23,461	28,500	135,000	15,000	70,000	512,000	1,047,697
55	University of North Dakota	47,017	61,347	214,600	....	120,000	502,000	1,700,000
56	Ohio University	39,000	45,000	150,000	....	480,813	560,000	29,000
57	Ohio State University	116,728	301,810	699,036	22,146	1,583,000	1,902,125	950,005
58	Miami University (Ohio)	35,000	50,000	150,000	....	50,000	575,000	110,000
59	University of Oklahoma	20,263	32,408	75,000	....	100,000	450,000	....
60	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	15,943	37,771	198,468	18,532	50,000	355,000	....
61	Oklahoma State School of Mines and Metallurgy.[1]	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
62	Oregon State Agricultural College	19,222	40,000	92,266	10,000	390,000	650,000	196,519
63	University of Oregon	36,000	60,000	152,462	....	300,000	293,000	55,000
64	Pennsylvania State College	44,613	99,500	427,311	10,979	62,800	1,447,613	517,000
65	University of Porto Rico	5,921	10,000	24,475	12,029	36,293	86,484	534
66	Rhode Island State College	19,210	35,025	81,307	6,640	14,855	240,476	50,000
67	South Carolina Military Academy	7,000	12,000	20,000	....	....	325,000	....
68	Clemson Agricultural College (S. C.).	16,295	31,927	357,757	19,607	127,600	735,854	154,439
69	University of South Carolina	44,500	100,000	150,000	....	275,000	450,000	....
70	South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	15,120	16,500	47,000	10,000	70,000	300,000	136,738
71	South Dakota State School of Mines.	4,000	10,000	110,000	....	15,000	85,000	....
72	University of South Dakota	20,000	41,500	125,000	....	50,000	400,000	....
73	University of Tennessee	34,596	40,000	232,825	10,408	293,475	425,113	409,000
74	University of Texas	80,000	176,000	....	....	117,500	1,180,923	2,075,000
75	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	(6)	....	242,223	11,050	36,240	1,200,000	209,000
76	Agricultural College of Utah	21,276	16,000	67,000	16,000	25,200	393,000	143,080
77	University of Utah	35,205	50,000	149,000	600	34,500	349,400	....
78	University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.	84,000	125,000	90,000	10,000	76,000	1,048,000	922,743
79	Virginia Polytechnic Institute	18,950	10,000	123,339	12,491	61,200	521,500	344,312
80	University of Virginia	75,000	100,000	178,077	760	600,000	1,223,875	1,416,766
81	Virginia Military Institute	16,000	25,000	50,000	....	100,000	500,000	21,000
82	College of William and Mary (Va.).	16,000	35,000	5,000	....	50,000	150,000	151,327
83	State College of Washington	31,182	46,695	179,177	16,129	117,600	1,028,227	737,940
84	University of Washington	50,297	109,534	384,137	750	1,059,000	1,086,440	5,000,000
85	West Virginia University	46,000	45,500	90,000	....	250,000	625,000	115,104
86	University of Wisconsin	185,079	414,813	744,393	31,636	1,865,361	2,952,009	665,884
87	University of Wyoming	31,000	62,000	169,000	8,000	110,000	300,000	31,500

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[1] No report.

[2] Included in current expenses.

[3] Fertilizer tax.

[4] Part of this money is used for the benefit of affiliated school of agriculture and the mechanic arts for negroes.

[5] 1¾ per cent of gross revenue of the State.

other State-aided institutions of higher education—Continued.

Income from—							Analysis of State appropriations.				
Student fees, including board and room rent.	Productive funds.	The State.	United States Government.	Private benefactions.	All other sources.	Total working capital.	Mill tax rate.	Receipts from mill tax.	Appropriation for current expenses.	Appropriation for building and permanent improvements.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
$290	....	$19,000	....	....	....	$19,290	......	....	$19,000	....	49
1,894	$1,083	16,000	$80,000	....	$9,128	108,105	......	....	16,000	....	50
488,116	463,700	478,000	72,500	$1,307,111	220,547	3,029,974	......	....	326,152	$151,848	51
47,635	12,500	137,000	....	44,885	19,563	261,583	......	....	87,000	50,000	52
22,860	7,500	133,000	63,500	....	56,318	283,178	......	....	83,000	50,000	53
14,498	69,110	81,221	80,000	....	12,658	257,487	$\frac{1}{5}$	$56,221	25,000	....	54
18,062	66,686	216,576	....	....	16,529	317,843	$\frac{11}{100}$	92,786	51,455	72,335	55
21,072	6,446	182,240	....	....	14,836	224,594	$\frac{11}{1000}$	88,490	48,750	45,000	56
118,214	55,711	732,962	50,000	787	54,684	1,012,358	$\frac{181}{1000}$	397,527	95,754	239,681	57
16,077	6,662	224,999	....	1,885	800	250,423	$\frac{11}{1000}$	83,301	69,788	71,910	58
10,000	21,731	150,000	....	....	....	181,731	......	....	150,000	....	59
5,000	28,500	271,000	75,000	....	12,000	391,500	......	....	100,000	171,000	60
....	....	....	....	....	....	....	......	....	....	....	61
19,212	10,493	316,250	80,000	....	43,936	469,891	......	....	179,500	136,750	62
7,807	9,013	125,000	....	....	....	141,820	......	....	125,000	(2)	63
51,035	31,020	269,260	80,000	....	20,660	451,975	......	....	269,260	....	64
....	....	113,025	50,000	....	8,121	171,146	......	....	83,025	30,000	65
4,079	2,500	30,000	80,000	....	12,542	129,121	......	....	27,000	3,000	66
40,202	....	60,077	....	....	2,246	102,525	......	....	32,278	27,799	67
5,340	9,266	114,113	55,000	....	11,437	195,156	(3)	114,113	....	....	68
12,218	....	69,106	....	7,500	....	88,824	......	....	69,106	....	69
7,563	30,626	72,500	80,000	....	29,815	221,527	......	....	68,500	4,000	70
2,526	2,503	31,050	....	....	....	36,079	......	....	30,250	800	71
13,572	4,862	128,000	....	....	....	146,434	......	....	96,000	32,000	72
30,099	25,708	66,139	[4]80,000	250	15,529	217,725	(5)	66,139	....	....	73
32,455	145,703	268,455	....	....	3,115	449,728	......	....	268,455	....	74
14,980	6,500	404,947	80,000	....	10,000	516,427	......	....	208,697	196,250	75
9,778	11,814	185,839	80,000	10,630	6,125	304,186	(7)	65,839	30,000	90,000	76
17,244	27,000	456,500	....	....	1,047	[8]501,791	(9)	150,000	....	306,500	77
53,437	40,466	26,000	80,000	60,958	16,954	277,815	......	....	26,000	....	78
21,760	20,659	73,683	63,333	....	64,374	243,809	......	....	67,683	6,000	79
63,384	72,177	92,667	....	44,751	8,113	281,092	......	....	92,667	....	80
30,000	2,900	45,000	....	....	....	77,900	......	....	40,000	5,000	81
4,165	8,089	57,000	....	....	....	69,254	......	....	40,000	17,000	82
15,532	42,062	267,500	80,000	....	32,155	437,239	......	....	267,000	(3)	83
30,759	....	408,000	....	1,350	....	440,109	......	....	379,000	29,000	84
17,789	6,100	145,000	70,000	....	20,000	258,889	......	....	145,000	....	85
270,637	37,087	1,552,398	80,000	15,763	172,175	2,128,060	$\frac{1}{2}$	1,103,029	164,000	285,369	86
3,093	7,529	84,161	80,000	....	6,684	181,467		84,161	....	....	87

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[6] Library destroyed by fire May 27, 1912.
[7] 7.94 per cent of 4½ mills on the dollar.
[8] Does not include $10,500 from Salt Lake City.
[9] 18.04 per cent of 4½ mills on the dollar.

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